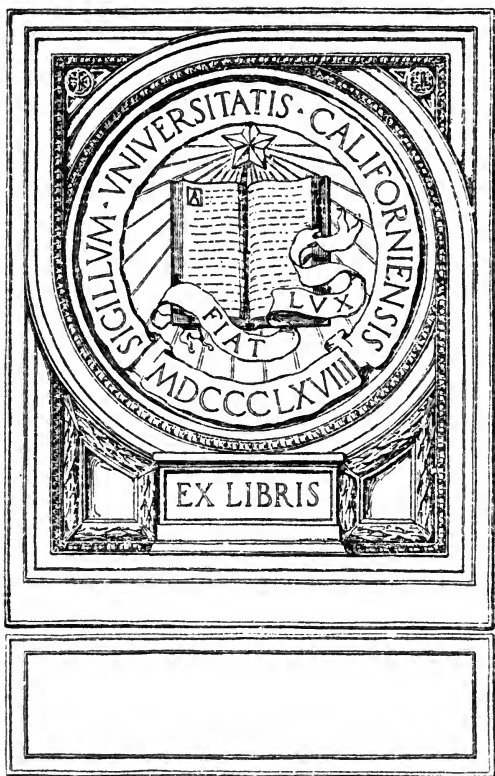
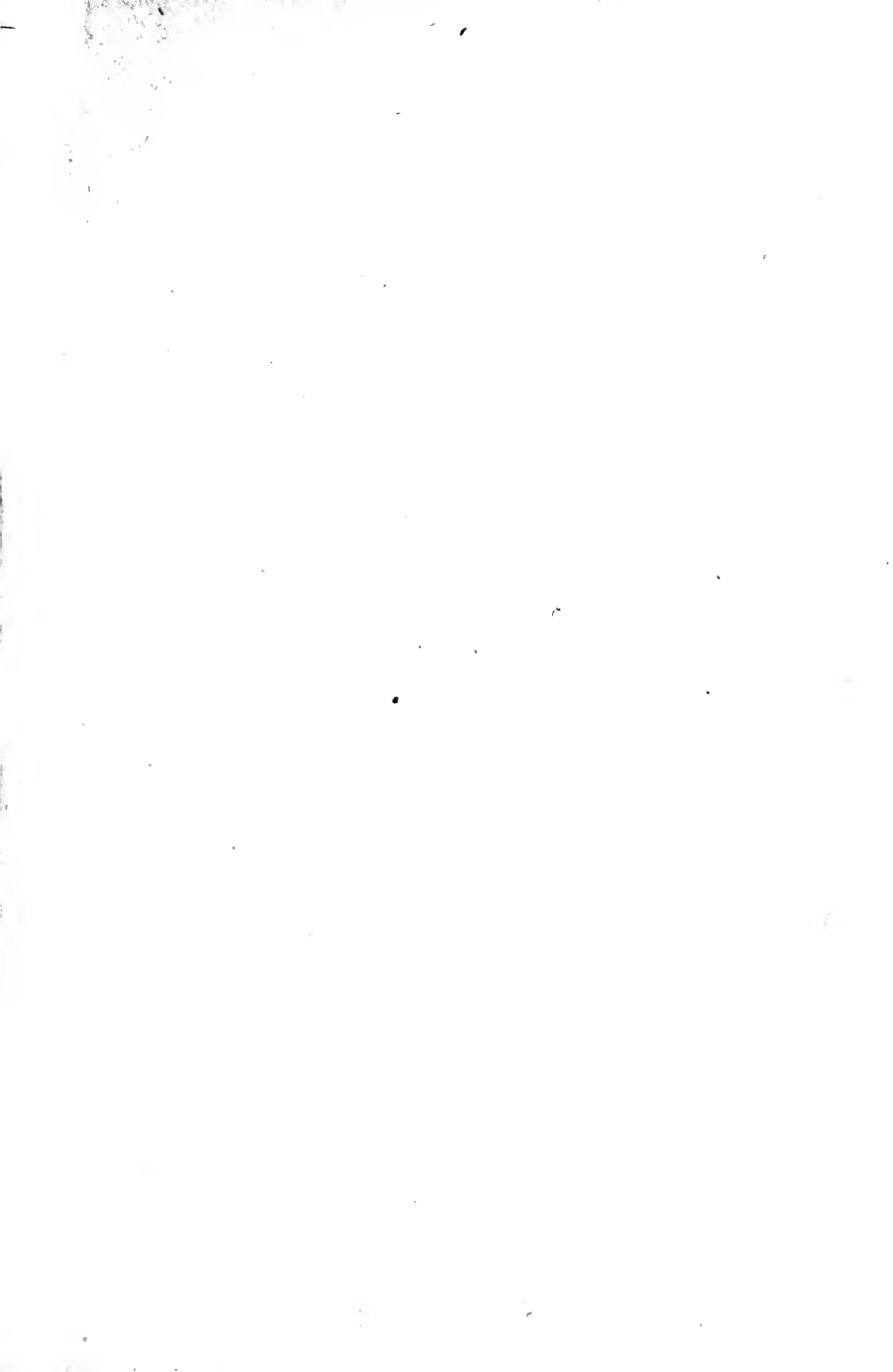


The Making of a Town

Frank L. McVey

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BY

FRANK L. McVEY

President of the University of North Dakota

Professor of Economics, University of Minnesota, 1896-1907

Chairman, Minnesota Tax Commission, 1907-1909

Author, *Modern Industrialism*, *Railroad Transportation*,

History and Government of Minnesota, *The Populist Movement*



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MANY things have been said in books and periodicals about cities, but very little has been written on the problems of the smaller towns. Still, the difficulties in these places are great; moreover, the meeting of them is checked by lack of leadership, opportunity to find the written material upon them in near-by libraries, and by the absence of a background of understanding and purpose. Some experience in town building and a close relationship to the problems of the smaller places, have brought me to the view that a statement of town problems might be of assistance. In view of that need, this book has been prepared. It does not pretend to solve all of the town problems, but I trust it brings to light some of the more essential features of town growth and the need of careful planning. If this point has been clearly put, the book serves its purpose.

FRANK L. McVEY

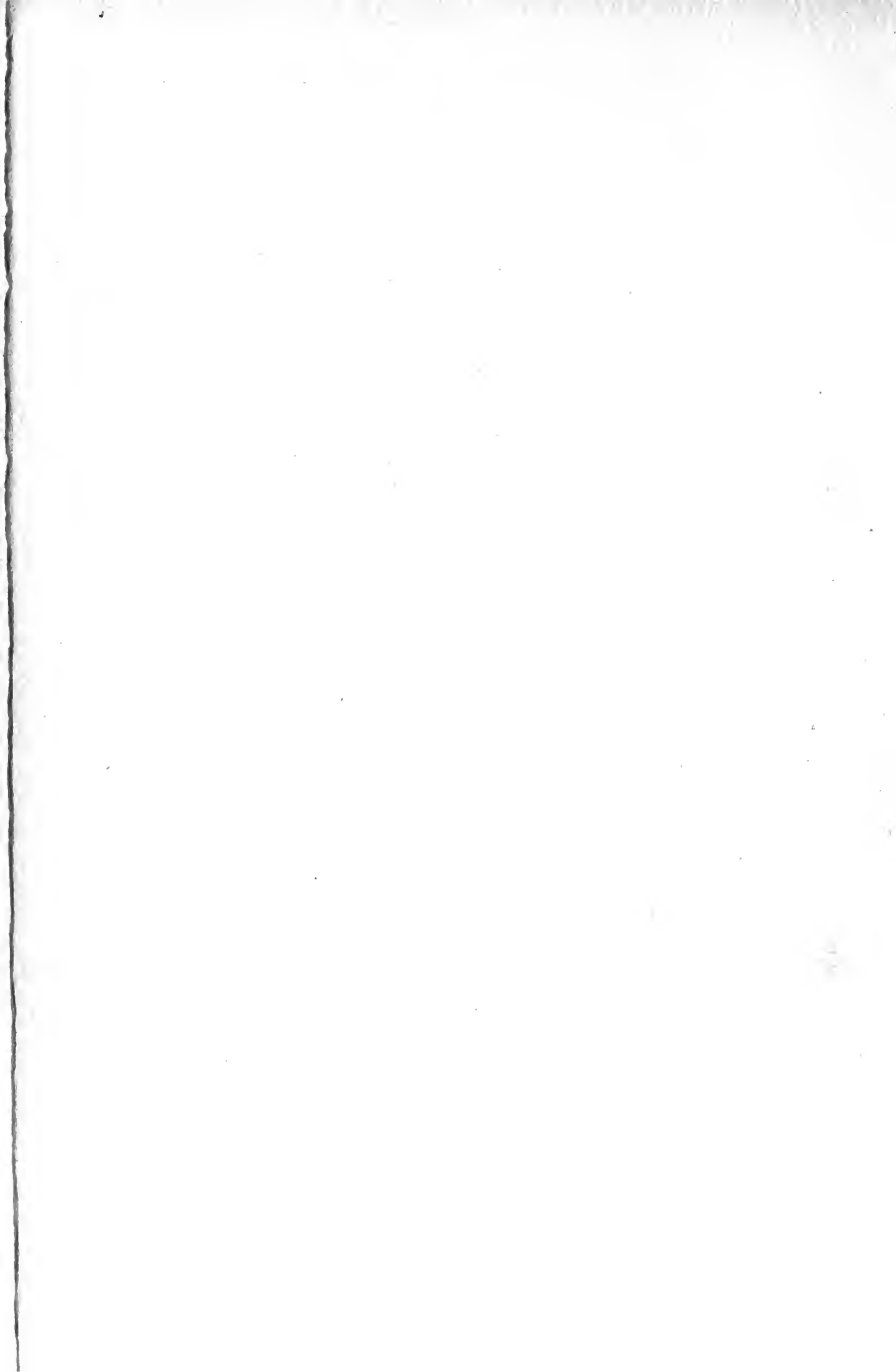


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TOWN BUILDING AND COÖPERATION

THE MAKING OF A TOWN

CHAPTER I

TOWN BUILDING AND COÖPERATION

COMMUNITY-BUILDING is a difficult and laborious process at best. It requires confidence in the future, the coöperation of men and women, and the bringing together of many elements to make it a success. Under our American concept of individualism, community-building has often been regarded as individual in character. There has been little emphasis laid on the coöperative side, and practically no recognition has been given to the contributions of the social factors to town-building. It is true that in many towns strong men have erected buildings, established banks, created mills and elevators, and done a great deal that has assisted materially the growth of the community. While all of this is desirable and worth the while, in itself it cannot create a town in the best sense of the term.

The individual has identified the success of the town in these instances with his own commercial advantage, and has overlooked the important fact that a town has a conscience, point of view, and attitude of its own. This spirit of the town must be alive to the town's condition, ready and alert as an indicator of the character of the general citizenship to take on problems and difficulties.

Community view and individual interest, moreover, do not always coincide. The basis of the opposition on the part of some men to town progress usually is not far to seek. Many times it is due to misunderstanding, to idle gossip, or to competition in a limited field. Thus the contest for patrons may take on all the bitterness of a hostile strife in a gold camp, and end in merchants having nothing to do with each other in a business or social way. Instead of ignoring such a situation, some of the members of the community take sides. As a consequence cliques are formed. This results in a divisional town, which continues to lose ground, because there can be no centralization of interests. If one side favors a proposition the other is opposed to it. Nothing deadlier could exist than just such

a condition. Mark Twain gave to the world a number of years ago his "Story of the Man Who Corrupted Hadleysburg." It can hardly be repeated, even in outline, but the complete overturning of the virtues of its citizens was due wholly to suspicion and overreaching proclivities. Where else could it have happened but in the small community?

Sometimes the strong man of the town insists, through the various agencies of church, school board, and council, that his views shall prevail. Thus the spirit of thrift is talked and urged by him not so much for the welfare of individuals as that tenants may pay rents and debtors settle promptly their obligations. If the theology of his church maintains this view, he is strongly set against the new thought that might in any way loosen the bond of obligation and throw doubts on the rendering to Caesar what is due. So the teacher is expected to inculcate the doctrines of ownership and the right to charge what the traffic will bear, while the town council is instructed to turn contracts over to those who are big taxpayers and consequent benefactors of the community. It is hard to get a man of such views to accept the social concept of a town's development, because his in-

terest and his thought have all centered about individual effort.

Besides this deterring element of individualism is another of even more seriousness, which creeps into every community as it takes on added importance and increase of population. The old-time neighborliness of the early days of the village, when the difference between the well-to-do and the poorer members of the community was merely a difference of physical comfort won by the sweat of the brow, has disappeared and been superseded by many artificial distinctions in family and social life. Inherited wealth makes possible the enjoyment of pleasures and more intimate touch with the outside world; and as wealth is concentrated, social distinctions arise and class lines appear as a factor in the town problems. This condition is noticeable in the utilization of the most attractive locations in the town for the best residences and the creation of a "desirable section" to which those able to afford it move. Churches, too, come to be designated as fashionable churches, and the town in its increase of population is marked by distinctions that affect the "get-together" spirit of the place.

In sections of the country where new towns are in the process of building the inhabitants are free from many of the traditions of older places. The newcomers who settle in the place are younger, more open to new ideas and ready to enter into the spirit of coöperation. This condition is worth much in the building of a town. "The veteran, John Bigelow, in an address read at the dedication of a museum presented by him to his native town in Massachusetts, declared that 'no people in town, village, or city can be really prosperous or happy without being brought together frequently to share common amusements and recreations and exchanges of opinion; it is such attractions that have contributed in a great degree to make Paris, London, Florence, and Rome pilgrim shrines.' In commenting on this thought the *Philadelphia Press* said that it is the opinion of a man of culture, of keen observation, and of experience through a long life extending beyond ninety years. It is not new, for it has been felt in almost every community at one time or another, but it has such obvious truth and force that it is worth reviewing any time and all the time. Harmony of thought and purpose and action have

prospered many a city. We have had, perhaps, the best demonstrations of this in western cities, particularly on the Pacific coast, where there has been marvelous growth of the new municipalities. Everybody helps to push the city along with all its interests, and they all work to one definite end, not pushing and pulling against each other."

"Know your city" is the motto of a new movement but recently sprung into existence and now seen to its best advantage in some of our larger municipalities. Knowing your town has reference not only to its good sides, but to its weak points as well. It is an attempt to clearly recognize the prospects, the difficulties, and the evils that exist in a community and to get at the social consciousness of the inhabitants. The city of Boston decided to create a great exhibition to be held in the year 1915. The purpose of this event was not to present in glaring figures the commerce of Boston, or her miles of harbor, or the amount of sidewalk, sewers, or paving that she possesses, but rather to show what is needed to make Boston the most perfect city in the world. To this end committees went to work to ascertain the economic basis of the city, its social

aims and purposes, what it needed in the way of public buildings and improvements, how the parks and the water system might be bettered; in fact, to find out what was lacking to make a complete city. Another city on the other side of the country determined to do not only the thing which Boston has done, namely, to talk about what they ought to be, but actually to accomplish it. Consequently, great efforts were made to better the harbor, to extend the park system, and to improve the city generally. A great manufacturing city in the center of the continent furnishes an example of a municipality that studied its weak side. It attempted to find out the conditions under which its workers were living, the evils with which they were faced from day to day, the sanitary conditions of the region in which the people lived and worked, and what the city had to offer to raise the general welfare.

These three great cities and their purposes might well serve as examples for smaller communities. There is no reason why any community should not face its future in black and white. This means the putting down on paper what it has on the credit side in the form of good schools, streets, parks, etc., as

well as enumerating the deficiencies in police service, health regulations, proper amusements, tenements, and the like. The adoption of a town motto expressive of hope and paraphrasing the relation of the town to the community about it would tend to concentrate the activity of citizens and give them a definite purpose in their work for their community. It seems necessary to give tangible form to propaganda by unifying and enthusing a movement through the use of a motto; thus: "Know your City," "A Clean City," "A Good Town to Live In," express the wish of a movement to better things. Town-building, however, here and there has advanced beyond this phase and has sought to lay a foundation in wider knowledge of conditions before attempting some special line of activity. Hence the "town survey," sometimes called the "social survey," has been inaugurated for the purpose of getting at the facts before an attempt is made to generalize about the problem.

Under the old method a great deal of the special work came to naught because there was no adequate basis for the conclusions of the committees in charge. Such a change in attitude has brought the student of

town problems to the front and relegated the spellbinders to the rear, for the reason that a survey requires knowledge of economic and social principles as well as how to apply them. It is due further to the recognition that town development is not wholly a matter of chance, but one that rests upon ascertainable principles; thus, increase in size and wealth means division of population, the introduction of social cleavage, and greater difficulty in maintaining town unity; the growth of a town along economic lines introduces disturbing elements in the policing, financing, and managing of a town organization; at the same time this progress will throw upon churches, schools, and charitable societies a more difficult problem than before. In each of these groups of problems a knowledge of facts is presupposed before any solution can be suggested. This means a survey.

Such a survey may well begin with an examination of the town's location, geographical and economic, to be followed by careful study of conditions in many lines of social and economic activity. For guidance of those who are in earnest the following outline is offered as a suggestion:

OUTLINE OF TOWN SURVEY

I. LOCATION

1. Geographic

- a. Character of topography
- b. Nature of soil, drainage and water supply
- c. Collection of maps and plats showing early growth

2. Economic

- a. Railroad connections, shipping and trackage facilities
- b. Distance from competing towns and the nature of the competition
- c. The wagon roadways, their condition and convenience

II. THE POPULATION

1. Number, origin and distribution in town
2. Race, religious and class antagonisms
3. Standards of living and wages paid
4. Conditions of employment

III. SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS

1. Recreational

- a. Outdoors: parks, playgrounds, public baths, open air concerts, winter sports
- b. Indoors: theaters, gymnasiums, dance halls, bowling alleys, places of amusement
- c. The coördination and direction of these

2. Social

- a. Clubs — social clubs, boys' clubs, etc.
- b. Restaurants, saloons
- c. Lodges, labor unions
- d. Entertainments and amusements, nature and character of
- e. Vice, nature and character of

3. Educational

- a. Schools — public and private; the conduct of

them and adaptation to town needs. Continuation schools

- b. Higher education—colleges, technical schools
- c. Libraries, reading rooms and book circulation
- d. Lectures, institutes
- e. Newspapers, periodicals and publications—
influence of
- f. Fine arts—music, concerts, art gallery
- 4. Religious and charitable organizations
 - a. Churches—number, denominations, membership, attendance
 - b. Sunday schools and work of
 - c. Charitable work carried on—associated charities; Salvation army; coöperation between; private philanthropy and question of poor relief

IV. GOVERNMENT

- 1. Management—character of government, political, business or social
- 2. Work of departments
 - a. Police
 - b. Fire
 - c. Health
 - d. Recreation and parks
 - e. Construction and public works
- 3. Utilities—what they are; how managed; character of service and cost
- 4. Financial—taxes, assessment of property, expenditure of funds; proper audit and publicity of accounts
- 5. Reformatory and eleemosynary—jails, almshouses, poor department, juvenile court, hospitals, dispensaries

V. CONCLUSIONS

- 1. The form the conclusions should take
- 2. Distribution of population on basis of income, living conditions and housing facilities

3. Is the town filling its function as an economic agent?
4. Has the town provided adequate means of guarding the health of its citizens: (a) in water supply, (b) sewerage, (c) housing, (d) care of contagious diseases?
5. Is the government efficient, honest and economical? In what respects can it be bettered?
6. Do the children have adequate educational facilities? Have the problems of retardation and truancy been solved?
7. What social institutions exist? What is their value?
8. Are the provisions for recreation and amusement sufficient to meet the aesthetic and ethical wants of the community? If not, what provisions can be made to meet the needs?
9. Is vice subjugated and the elements making for it subordinated? Are there real efforts made to keep the town clean and on a high moral basis; do churches, schools, police and commercial clubs coöperate to this end?
10. What plans are being made for a better town in the matters of planning, recreation, education and business?
11. Maps and charts should be made to show graphically the facts gathered in the survey.

Enough has been said on the question of a survey to open the mind of the intelligent citizen, and to suggest as well, that town planning and town drifting are two widely divergent things. The first presupposes knowledge, interest, and purpose; the latter is the point of view that it is nobody's business, based upon the fallacious doctrine that a good town

is bound to come out all right of its own accord in the long run. But nothing happens by mere chance; a town is what it is in the course of a half century because of economic and social conditions, coupled with the exercise of intelligence, energy, foresightedness, and coöperative spirit on the part of the citizens in solving the problems.

In the pages of this book it is proposed to consider the more important things that make for better towns. The reader will undoubtedly accept the view that some of these are more fundamental than others and for purposes of discussion may be regarded as basic. As the author views the matter, the topics health, education, morals, and business would include in their wider application most that is vital to the community. In fact, they may be referred to as the fundamentals of community growth and their treatment will necessitate the use of a chapter for each one. A brief description here of the terms and what will be discussed in connection with them should facilitate their presentation in pages farther on.

I. The first fundamental has just been said to be *health*. Its consideration brings the town face to

face with sanitary conditions, the disposal of waste, garbage, sewage, the securing of good water, the ventilation of schoolhouses, and the medical inspection of school children.

2. *Education* has been made almost a fetish in American communities, but it involves so much that any progressive community does not hesitate to lend every influence it can exercise to have a modern school. The general tone of the community is reflected in the school; in consequence, the problems of support, maintenance, and direction are unusually important.

3. The *moral* atmosphere of the community is the third fundamental. A town is attractive, as a general thing, in accordance with its moral atmosphere. This involves its attitude toward saloons, the tone of the amusements, the enforcement of law, and the part which is played by school and church as moral agents in holding young people to higher ideals. The amusements are closely allied with the moral situation, and especially is this true in the smaller communities, which are rarely visited by lecturers, musical organizations or theatrical companies. Mental stimulus and moral outlook are

furnished oftentimes by instruction, and this problem is one of the most serious the small town has to consider.

4. A further fundamental is *business*. It is the foundation of the town and consequently important. There are always conflicting forces at work against the development of business in a community, seen sometimes in too much competition, in too high prices, in lack of advertising or a clear perception of the problem which confronts the community. Many villages drift from condition to condition, taking each failure to arrive as an evidence of the hostile attitude of Providence toward them. This is the situation that will obtain unless counteracted by the intelligent coöperation of the men of the town with each other. Business conditions generally are changing so rapidly that adherence to old views may leave the town behind in the race for supremacy in the district, unless resort is had to joint action through the medium of organization. Thus far the commercial club has been the best medium for securing common opinion and common action.

Besides the features of town organization mentioned thus far in this outline of the book's purpose,

there are other phases of town life which will be given consideration in the remaining chapters; such as administration and government, including the question of taxation, the activities of clubs and organizations, the town hotel and the future of the community. The point of view from which these interesting topics will be considered is that of the town as a community of common interests. The town is a social organism. The conduct of its affairs should be marked by loyalty, intelligence, efficiency, willingness to spend money, and insistence upon results, for the very reason that it is not a private concern, but a social organization, involving the interests of thousands of people.

A few years ago individualism was rampant. The emphasis was upon competition as the soul of trade, and because of the opposition engendered, pulling together was nearly impossible. Little by little the municipality has begun to understand that very nearly anything is possible when citizens work together; while the concept of community values, due to the presence of a population in a limited area, is breaking slowly upon the minds of men as a means by which the social needs of the community may be financed.

THE PLANNING OF THE TOWN

CHAPTER II

THE PLANNING OF THE TOWN

IN the edition of the London *Times* for September 1, 1911, a brief article appeared upon the proposed capital of Australia. A site some seventy miles from the eastern coast line, in New South Wales, at Yass Canderra, has been selected, and it is expected that there will be established the permanent seat of government, where the federal parliament will meet and the commonwealth legislation be enacted. In time, there will be built a parliament house, government buildings, post-offices, college and university buildings, museums, markets, parks, and all the paraphernalia of a great city. Before anything is done, however, the government has called for competitive designs upon all phases of the problem, to be submitted upon a given date. This item of news is introduced at the beginning of this chapter upon the planning of the town to indicate

how the people of Australia propose to build a capital city—by first carefully planning it.

Every town or village has some sort of a plan. It may be one that is worked out in the first place or one that is evolved later, but the town does not move far in its history before a paper plat has been accepted by the civil authorities. The expansion of most of the towns of modern times is the result of real estate enterprises, and their purpose has been to sell lots rather than to look at the community as a social organization with a future; so towns have grown by accretions, called, in the real estate world, additions. These are plotted with the single purpose in view just referred to, and in carrying it out the adherence to accepted ideas, shown usually in the checkerboard form of plotting, is a customary feature of real estate promotion. There are other instances of town planning of a special character, resulting from the purpose of some manufacturing concern to devise a town which it can control, in planning, organization and government; and in many instances such places are really model towns that hold up an example for the imitation of the slower going communities. But very few towns are

planned with much of the future in view; if they were, we should not find the embarrassment and limitations to town growth brought about by high values of property in private hands, but we would find provisions made in the plans for the needs of the inhabitants and the protection of comfort and decency through control over surrounding lands. Only within the past few years has there been any consideration given to the need of plotting the land round about as well as inside the town limits, and that has been done mostly abroad; thus it is left for future generations to wonder why the present dwellers in towns did not protect themselves by looking after the open places, school sites, and other public needs.

In general, without refining the distinction, there are two types of town planning. One may be called the formal and the other the informal type. In the first class are the checkerboard, diagonal, and round forms of city plans, while included in the second are the garden cities and the individual plans made to fit topographical conditions. New York City set the seal of approval upon the gridiron system in the working out of the city plans above Fourteenth

street. This form is the simplest and it provides an accurate method of property description, though it has the disadvantage of requiring every citizen to pass around two sides of a block to reach a given point, and it utilizes an unusually large portion of the land for street purposes. The diagonal type of plan was used by L'Enfant in the laying out of the city of Washington. The ring plan as planned in the European cities, is seen more particularly in the case of Vienna, where the old fortifications were used as the foundations of the boulevards extending around the city. Opposed to these forms are the towns of the informal type, among which may be enumerated the garden cities, established in England more than anywhere else, largely for the purpose of giving a natural setting to modern industry.

Without doubt Letchworth in England furnishes the best example of the informal type, since the purpose of the organizer was clear and up to the present more fully developed than elsewhere. Says the prospectus of the company, "The four main features of Letchworth may be summarized as follows: (1) the freehold of the town is held in the interest of the present and future community; (2) the

maximum number of houses to the acre is twelve; (3) only one-third of the estate is being developed as town, two-thirds are being retained as rural and parkland; (4) the shareholders are entitled to five per cent, the surplus will go to the tenants and lessees in one form or another." Hampstead, on the outskirts of London, is an excellent example of the topographical plan, for there the housing and garden questions have been brought to a harmonious conclusion. The manufacturing village under company control is best illustrated by the instances of Port Sunlight and Bourneville in England; Alfredshof in Essen, Germany; Hopedale, Massachusetts; Gary, Indiana, and LeClaire, Missouri.

The garden plans require, however, certain racial conditions in the community. If there is considerable variety in the nationality of the population, it is difficult indeed to work out a garden city plan. The purpose is to secure a combined city and town effect; to do this the gridiron system of lot arrangement has been given over entirely, and the number of houses limited to from ten to twenty to the acre. Twelve houses to the acre of building land provides gardens of the right size, and not too large to be

worked by a laborer and his family. These houses are carefully grouped so as to give a picturesque appearance.

But these facts about the garden city are not the vital ones, for the whole emphasis in the town's development has been shifted from property to citizens. To secure the advantages of comfortable living at smaller costs, with enlarged community and individual rights, is the purpose of these new municipalities. When the idea is fully realized the city is its own landlord and its own builder, utilizing the land for recreation and residence purposes, while planning for playgrounds, beauty spots, and open areas for public buildings. The fundamental principles recognized are (1) the purchase of low-priced agricultural land before development takes place; (2) the permanent control of the area, including streets, parks, and open spaces; (3) the utilization of the unearned increment due to the growth of the town for the benefit of the town, through either reduction in rent or the enlargement of municipal enterprises.

The types of the garden city may be grouped under the three heads of (1) the self-contained in-

dustrial community; (2) the garden suburb; and (3) the industrial village adjoining a factory plant. All have in common the element of superior authority resting in the community organization.

In Germany, where the greatest advances have been made in planning cities along distinctly topographical lines, a marked opposition has sprung up to what is called the "handsome picture" type of plan, which seeks to arrange symmetrically the appearance of buildings. This is effected mainly upon paper, though in actual construction it fails to make the impression that is expected when first planned. The point of view of this new group of men in Germany is the avoidance of monotony and the use of local circumstances through development according to topographical conditions. Looked at in this way, no two communities would have the same plan of development, since the conditions upon which they were worked out would not be the same.

The attitude referred to above is unquestionably the right one, for the building of a town should be based not only upon the coöperative principle, but as well upon knowledge of the best way to unite inhabitants in their efforts. Hence, in organizing the

plan of a town or village, it is essential (1) that the means of circulation, by which is meant the roads, streets, walks, etc., shall be carefully planned; (2) that there shall be proper locating and distribution of open places and public buildings; and (3) that private lands shall be so situated as to make the placing of residences desirable and agreeable. Ordinarily, recognition of the needs of a town plan is not gained by the blowing of horns or the enumeration of the processes through which the community must go to secure a reorganization. Open-mindedness and willingness to accept broad views of the problem's solution are fundamental. When coupled with skillful investigation of needs and problems, this attitude will undoubtedly bring results, though the acceptance of a plan should be followed by the united and hearty coöperation of public authorities and individuals; and when the general outline has been adopted, the plan should be put into execution promptly along the lines laid down.

Be the community large or small, it is desirable that at the beginning of the movement for new plans some knowledge should be secured of the character of the community, of the functions which it per-

forms, and of the economic and social organization under which it is constituted. In other words, something should be done toward what is called, in the previous chapter, an economic and social survey of the community. A preliminary local survey—to include the collection of maps, plans, drawings, documents, statistics illustrative of the situation, history, communications, industry, population, town conditions,—would do much to clear the air of many erroneous notions regarding the community and its future. To plan a town rightly it is necessary to have the coöperation of the surveyor and engineer, the hygienist, the economist, and finally, in order to bring the contributions of all these into harmony and dignity, the architect, who is the leader and organizer of the constructive side of the work that is to be done.*

After the survey has been made the mere mechanics of planning involve the division of the town into districts, in which the size and height of buildings are determined, and a territory set apart for the placing of factories. Thought also should be had of

* See Catalog of Belfast Cities and Town Planning Exhibition, 1912, p. 63.



the laying out of sewers, not merely for a period of one or two years, but for at least twenty or twenty-five years in advance of the community. This will mean the saving of expense and the giving of better service to the citizens. Facilities for transportation are not an impossibility and provision should be made for them. In the development of parks and open places, the problem would practically be solved, so far as the expense of it is concerned, if the municipality were authorized to purchase land and to replat it in such a way as to secure the benefit of the resulting rise in values that always follows the creation of any park or open place. Even in case the land is occupied, its condemnation under the law, though the expense to the community would be great, would be justified by the added value given to it by the improvement. It is said that when Vienna wants money for public purposes the authorities make improvements and sell the adjoining land for high prices due to the changes made. The ordinary method of meeting the cost of a park is to assess back upon the land surrounding it the benefits that come from the creation of the park. In one way this is the plan of the Vienna method, except that

there is no change in the ownership of the property and the city can make no profit above the cost of the improvement.

The inhabitants of most western towns have had very little to say about the laying out of their communities. They have been planned usually by engineers on the basis of what might be called a rectangular town. The main street is either parallel or at right angles to the railroad. Thus, one finds in traveling across the country town after town exactly similar in the details of its planning. Sometimes the courthouse is placed at one end of the main street and the schoolhouse at the other, with a square in the center between them, though this arrangement is rather rare. In the older towns of Europe a traveler is impressed by the irregularity of the streets and in many instances by their narrowness. A more careful examination, however, shows that the men who planned these communities had in mind the nature of the traffic on the streets, as well as the general picture the town makes as a consequence of the careful laying out of streets. The street question, therefore, reaches great importance in every community.

The tendency in America has been to make streets practically the same width throughout the town, regardless of the purpose or service that they are to render. In most instances the streets of the town are too wide, especially the part devoted to roadways. One is astonished again and again to find in Europe roadways eight, twelve and sixteen feet in width, upon which passes a very considerable traffic. Consequently, the widening of the parkings of our streets and the narrowing of the actual roadway would result in a very material beautifying of the street, and in addition would lessen the cost of keeping the paving in order. Many an official, planning the streets of a new town, fails to recognize that traffic is never so great as the provision of his plat calls for. Seldom is it necessary for three vehicles to pass abreast, and if it is, twenty-four feet are ample space, while sixteen are nearer the requirements of the ordinary street. When there is any addition to the multiple eight feet, there is useless expense and no benefit gained, since a vehicle requires that much and no more room to move on the highway.

The junctions of streets, where traffic comes in

contact with the buildings in any direction, form a very important feature in every community. In the checkerboard and diagonal types of towns the method of dealing with junctions is practically the same in all cases. In the European cities, especially in those of Germany, the junctions of streets vary according to the conditions of traffic; in case of congested traffic the junction is widened out at the crossing, narrowing again as the street proceeds.

Just how far tree-planting should be carried on along streets and roadways depends upon local conditions. "Trees and grass form the natural decoration for streets and places in towns wherever the condition of the atmosphere will allow them to grow. Like every form of decoration, however, this needs to be used with considerable judgment and restraint. Breadth and simplicity of treatment seem to be essential to good results. Many fine streets and places in continental towns are spoiled for lack of restraint in the character of the gardening and planting adopted. Broad stretches of grass and simple masses or avenues of foliage are generally successful, if well placed." The small town is faced with the problem of tree-planting, and in addition effec-

tive tree-planting, which will be useful for shade purposes and beautiful in decoration. Perhaps the first requisite is a tree ordinance, the second surely is consultation with a landscape architect, as to the kinds of trees, distances apart, and where to plant. Some streets call for one treatment and some for another, but monotony should be avoided. And a third requirement should be added. It is to this effect: make the municipality responsible for the planting and care of trees; for when this is done continuity and persistency become the attitude of the community and provide for adequate planting and care through a series of years.

The problem of paving is perennial and difficult of solution. In many instances the utilization of macadam for the village street is all that is required, and in a locality where gravel is difficult to obtain a composite paving is resorted to in the business sections of the town. There is a great difference of opinion as to the best forms of paving, but undoubtedly all would agree that there should be a concrete base from four to eight inches in thickness. Upon this may be placed many types of paving. Only four or five classes of materials, which have been

tested by experience, need to be considered by a community seeking a paving. These are stone blocks or cobbles, asphalt, wood block, and brick; but even these when tested by the criteria of noiselessness, absence of slipperiness, general appearance, and economy, leave much to be desired. In the past ten years there has been a very rapid growth in the use of the wood block and bituminous macadam. Paving wears out rapidly and the automobile helps materially in its dissolution, creating also a difficult dust problem. It is said on good authority that the roads of America lose 500,000 tons of material annually by wind and wear and tear of vehicles. Here and there attempts have been made to oil roads, and when the oil has had an asphaltic base the application has materially helped to check the dust.

Very early in the history of the community the question of buildings, of height and materials, comes before the governing body for consideration. The sky-lines of New York City and Chicago have been imitated in practically every community on a greater or less scale. In the main districts of towns, buildings are erected closely together on what might

be called the string method. They crowd along the main street and the public square, which in some measure is convenient, but it is always productive of an awkward appearance. If the small town could realize that it is unnecessary to build all of its business houses next to one another, and so scatter them about here and there, changing their appearance to conform to the surroundings, the town itself would be much more beautiful and the artistic sense of the community very materially advanced. This principle has been followed in the case of the garden city plans that have been developed in England.

That "a man's house is his castle" appears to be the measure of house-building in our own country, where the small detached house is so much in vogue. Nothing more forlorn in the problem of town planning is to be found anywhere than in the streets lined by continuous rows of houses of similar design and erected at equal distances from each other on a straight line. Nor is the view much improved when the owners strive to outdo their neighbors. Then monotony gives way to a "higgledy-piggledy" result that is almost as unsatisfactory, though each man prides himself on having protected his own in-

terest. The offset to this situation is collective planning and control; "for the trouble lies in the fundamentally bad requisites as to their proportions, mass and relative position, made necessary by the current system of lot sizes and their individual development."* And nothing can solve the problem but a joint determination on the part of owners to place their houses where each one will have a fair outlook, and also to accept one architect who shall mass the buildings as seems wise, in order to have architectural results and economy of construction. So impossible does an outcome of this kind seem that but little is to be looked for in the way of better house and building grouping in the average town, except here and there, where a land owner has accepted and emphasized the principle of collective planning and control. Yet the burdens of land ownership and the evils of land speculation are bound to force the adoption of the principle of properly concentrated and located houses on small lots that at the same time will prove to be effective buildings from the architectural point of view.

The town that does not possess a park of some

* See an interesting article, *Scribner's Magazine*, July, 1912, p. 28.

kind is an anomaly, for the city fathers of practically every community have purchased a plat of land that in the parlance of the community is known as "the park." It may be a long distance from the center of the town, or it may be actually inside of the city, but it is usually added as an afterthought to the original plan, for one of the things that is overlooked often by the planners of towns, especially when they are developed on the basis of the gridiron or checkerboard system, is the park. Under ideal conditions it should be located in the center of the community, connected by good roads to every part of the town, and within its area should be a baseball diamond, tennis courts, and a ball ground. In connection with the playground idea some tendency is to be seen at the present time toward this type of park and undoubtedly it will be more and more marked as time goes on. One reason why the town life of mediæval Europe reached such delightful proportions was because of the frequent coming and going of the people in the plaza. The park of today in the modern town takes the place of the old plaza, and every inducement should be made to bring the community into it and every incentive set up to cause

them to use it, since it tends to develop that larger sense of democracy so greatly needed in our communities. But it is a far cry from the theory of a park as a part of the equipment of a community to the actual securing of adequate recreation grounds. A landscape architect recently reporting upon the problems involved in developing a park, first called attention to the physical features that affect most the beauty or ugliness of a town. He followed this study by another regarding the need of neighborhood squares and then showed the locations for playgrounds, the use of parks of large natural beauty and sufficiently unified so that future development would not mar it. To him the importance of accessibility, street extensions and parkways, as well as the surroundings of railway stations, made them a part of the park problem that was joined with the whole town development.

The purpose, after all, of city planning, as Mr. John Nolan says, is to make the community "more democratic, to develop the individuality of the city, and to stop waste—waste of land, of human energy and vitality, and waste of health through badly planned sewerage and water systems."

We are just beginning to get an idea of the importance of town-planning. "Making things do" has been the basis of most town construction, and the removal of the ugliness from modern life is one of the functions of the up-to-date community. Yet this is just the thing that is apt to be overlooked. In many instances things have been done in a niggardly way, but the application of the principles of art to the planning of the town is not to be looked upon simply as the suggestion of a connoisseur, but rather as a thing which the most practical man ought to take into consideration and plan for. "Art," after all, "is the doing well of what needs doing." It is not a trimming, but a necessity, and when a thing is well thought out, well planned, and well built, art will be the result.

THE FIRST FUNDAMENTAL—HEALTH

CHAPTER III

THE FIRST FUNDAMENTAL—HEALTH

“**T**HE public health is the foundation on which reposes the happiness of the people and the power of a country,” said Lord Beaconsfield forty years ago. The statement made then is still true. In the course of the next twelve months a million and a half persons will die in the United States; more than four million two hundred thousand will be constantly sick, which is to say that over five million homes, containing twenty-five million persons, will be affected and made wretched sometime during the year as a result of morbidity and mortality. The cost of such wholesale sickness and death amounts to millions of dollars annually. Individually the American takes more baths than the average man of any other nation, but looked at from a communal point of view he is nearly as dirty as the people of what are usually referred to as the less enlightened lands. In Spain the death rate per million of population in

the period from 1905 to 1908, from the most typical of the filth diseases, typhoid, was 362; in the United States it was 288, while in Ireland it was 91, in England 80, in Prussia 61, and in Switzerland 46.

In the American community this condition of affairs may be traced to the want of coöperation on the part of citizens and the indifference of public officials, due largely to their lack of imagination and understanding of the meaning of sanitation. As a people we fail to appreciate the importance of health and the effect which it has upon the growth and progress of the community. There are a number of weighty problems involved in the growth of every town which are closely associated with its health and the extent of the death rate. They may be enumerated as those dealing with the removal of garbage and ashes, the care of sewage, the source of water, the protection of milk and foods, and the prevention of epidemics in the public schools.

It has been the custom in the smaller communities to allow every citizen to determine for himself how his ashes and garbage and other refuse shall be handled, though happily we have passed beyond the day when the household refuse was spilled in the

streets and slops thrown from the windows without regard to the finery of the passer-by on the paving below. The method much in vogue was for each individual to haul outside of the town limits the refuse from his household and deposit it where it could be done with the least inconvenience; but the refusal of land-owners to permit this sort of thing forced the creation of a municipal dump, which in most instances becomes a community disgrace, the abode of flies and stench. In course of time every community will be brought to the maintenance of some sort of collection system, especially in view of the fact that it will not cost any more in the aggregate than the method of individual dumping. A town in one of the northern tiers of counties in Minnesota provided every household with a raised platform where the garbage and ash pans were placed before being emptied at regular intervals by an employe of the community.

The arrangements made for the disposal of community wastes are classified as the license, the contract, municipal or dumping systems. The license system is one under which an individual is given the privilege of visiting the various houses of the com-

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munity to take away the refuse; this usually means an unsatisfactory collection, as the licensee does not wish to take all that he is asked to carry away. The contract system is one under which the town enters into an arrangement with some individual to remove the refuse at so much per cubic yard or so much per year for the whole job, while the municipal system is one that the community operates, undertaking to carry on the collection, paying the cost from public funds. Any of these methods, however, may result in the plan of dumping on land where burning, plowing under, or feeding may follow as a means of destroying the accumulations. The erection of a municipal incinerator for the purpose of destroying the organic material is by far the most satisfactory, though dump burning has much to be said for it as against allowing accumulations without any attempt at disposal. A separation of the refuse, though, into organic and inorganic materials results in easier handling of it and more satisfactory care. An analysis of garbage shows 70 per cent moisture, 3 per cent grease, 20 per cent fibrous material, and 7 per cent refuse and rubbish. This is a group of possibilities freighted with financial return, when

handled on a large scale, that has caused the larger cities to establish reducing works, which by the use of steam have produced soap, oils, residues and fertilizers of value. Once in a while satisfactory incinerators have been built, but only when the manufacturers have kept inviolate the fundamental rules of fuel combustion. They have to deal with wet fuels and the problem involves the difficulties of driving off the moisture, burning the gas vapors, and offsetting the heat loss by radiation. Still, there are now no less than 250 such plants in Great Britain, and more than half of them are using the heat produced to manufacture power. The latest plant of this type is located in the Borough of Richmond (Staten Island), New York City. Professor Baskerville declares, in his *Municipal Chemistry*, that the street cleaning department of New York City found in every thousand loads of ashes an astonishing lot of materials. There were, according to this statement, ten tons of tin cans, 2,400 pounds of paper, 3,000 pounds of rags, 11,000 bottles, 55 barrels of broken glass, 300 empty barrels, two tons of old iron, and 836 pounds of rubber products. Besides this amazing list, it was found that ashes contained

30 per cent of clinker, 45 per cent of fine ash, and 25 per cent of unburned or partially burned coal. The fine ash was available for manufacture into Portland cement, the clinker for cement work, and the coal for fuel. The whole is a lesson in economy of wastes that will press more and more upon even the small municipality.

Another question looms large in the disposal of community waste. It is more difficult of solution than the problem of garbage and ashes. House sewage amounts to about thirty gallons per person per day, and the problem of disposing of this becomes exceedingly difficult for any community. The cost of building a proper sewer system is one that forces some short-cut method of dealing with the situation. Two methods of dealing with the waste, speaking in broad terms, remain to the community; either the draining of it into the water of a stream or allowing the soil to take care of it. There is, however, a limit to the capacity of water to absorb and purify itself after contamination with sewage. The usual method has been to carry it off in some stream or lake, but as populations grow very serious ob-

jections arise to a method of this kind, since the burden is merely shifted and the problem of drainage and freedom from stench is left unsolved. In some places this phase of the problem has been met by building a series of open tanks, using screens to hold and retard the organic matter.

The other methods of surface irrigation or of sub-surface irrigation have certain features to commend them. Through the medium of the first the sewage and household wastes are distributed through specially devised pipes or drains on the surface of the ground sloping away from the sewage pipes. The area of one acre of land will absorb the sewage of 2,000 persons, but as this method is not adaptable to cold climates it cannot be used by many cities. The sub-surface irrigation method is a similar system, except that the effluent is carried beneath the surface of the ground in perforated pipes. The cesspool and ordinary sewage vault are unsatisfactory methods of caring for sewage, and both are likely to result in the development of disease in the community. The dry earth or sanitary pail closet is distinctly in advance of either one of these,

although it necessitates considerable labor to render it harmless and satisfactory and is not adaptable to communities of any size.

Sewage is largely water, containing very little inorganic matter, and this fact has made the method of sedimentation attractive to a good many sanitary engineers, because by confining the effluent to tanks and stimulating sedimentation by chemicals the water can be drained off without a heavy charge of organic matter. The best known of these tanks is the septic tank, sometimes called a glorified cess-pool, through which the sewage flows slowly, relying upon bacteria to break up the solid matter. It provides for the first stage of bacterial action, breaking up the sludge by the bacteria and bringing about the reduction of the organic matter. It is said to have been first developed at Urbana, Illinois, in 1894, and was used in Exeter, England, in 1896. Where the water passes through bacteria beds the effluent must be treated chemically, in order to decrease the amount of the bacteria.

An improvement upon the septic tank, called the Imhoff tank, has been tried in connection with a large sewerage system developed in the valley of the

Emscher River round about the city of Essen, Germany. Within this drainage area are a population of 2,000,000, located in the large city of Essen and a number of smaller places and numerous industrial plants and coal mines. Thus a serious sewage problem was created: first of drainage and second of disposal. The latter phase of the question is the one which more particularly interests the dweller in the smaller city. The clarification tank adapted for treating sewage in the district has been called the Imhoff tank, after the engineer, Dr. Karl Imhoff, who perfected it. Like the septic tank, it does not render sewage pure, but it does clarify and does treat the residue, or sludge, as it is called. The removal of suspended matter from the sewage is the business of the Imhoff tank. This form of tank is in reality a two-story septic tank, allowing the gas-producing and bacteria-working influences to go on at the same time. From the upper chamber the suspended solids gradually settle and slide down the sloping bottoms into the sludge-decomposing chamber below. Here the sludge remains until the putrescible matter is thoroughly decomposed, when it is removed through a pipe. The gases of decomposition escape,

and the sludge, on account of low water content, dries quickly and can be used for fertilizer or filling purposes. These tanks have been tried successfully in a number of German cities; one tank will take care of the sewage of 2,000 people, and a series of tanks will provide for the largest places. It perhaps is not too much to say that this device is the latest and most advanced method of treating sewage, and should be thoroughly studied by the engineers of towns about to do something with their sewage problem.

Fortunate, indeed, is any town possessing a water supply that is above suspicion as a disease carrier. "To constitute a satisfactory supply water should not only be free at all times from all traces of microscopically visible disease germs and chemical contamination, but the location of its source and the methods of construction and operation of its pumping station, storage reservoir, and distribution should be such that full protection against contamination is possible. And water may be good as shown by chemical or bacteriological examinations, but owing to the near presence of some source of contamination, such as a cesspool, privy vault, sewage, etc.,

may become dangerous at any time. The importance of full information concerning the surroundings of the source of supply and the methods of construction and operation are to be easily seen."

The source of water is to be found in wells, rivers, or lakes. The first may be privately owned by individuals, each household depending upon it for their supply of water, or the well may be put down to greater depths by the community and operated by it. In the former case there are likely to be great differences in the character and bacteriological condition of the water, since there are many opportunities for contamination. The use of water from a river or lake pumped into mains and from them into individual houses may be materially affected by the turbidity of the water, a difficulty met by the treatment of the water held in reservoirs through the use of lime and sulphate of iron. Where colon bacilli are present, it has been possible by the use of chloride of lime to reduce the bacterial count to a minimum point, rendering the water fit for drinking purposes. "It only kills a few" is a very bad argument, though having the sanction of the experience test, and one that ought not to stand in the way of

the adoption of adequate means to secure a satisfactory water supply. Aeration has no value as a disease preventer, though it is effective in destroying taste and smell. Filtration, however, can be made to do much in bettering a water supply. By this method there are two ways of producing results; one by a slow filtration of the water through sand and gravel, and the other by rapid filtration and the appliance of chemicals by mechanical device. The first requires frequent change of sand and an arrangement of the reservoirs in such a way as to provide for the closing of parts of them during cleaning; the second, while no more efficient than a sand filter, can be utilized where there are smaller reservoirs, and when well managed it requires but small additions of chemicals to the water and costs less to build and maintain.

These brief statements make clear that, however difficult the water problems may be in a community, sanitary engineers have been able in the main to solve them, providing the public can furnish the necessary funds for the construction and proper operation of filtration plants. In consequence, any community that goes on with its plans for a water

supply without advice from first-class sanitary experts is short-sighted, to say the least, and in these days of science may be called criminally foolish.

Another source, and a very frequent one, of typhoid contamination is the milk supply; this result, however, is not to be traced back to "bossy," but is due to careless handling of milk in its distribution. Typhoid is only one of the troubles that come from careless handling, for many children's diseases may be traced to "dirty milk." By far the greatest amount of harm that is produced by milk is due to the objectionable bacteria which it contains. No test has been devised that will quickly and easily show the presence of disease germs in milk; hence the dairy and its surroundings must be clean all of the time. Unless a community establishes inspection of dairies and examination of product, it can have no sense of security against disease. While even minimum requirements of ordinances may do something, occasional visits of customers to dairies will help materially the maintenance of clean conditions in the milk business and uphold the hands of officers.

It remained for Dr. Koch to point out the danger from infection through the prevalence of tuberculosis

in milch cows. The convincing work of Dr. Hess, of New York City, furnished proof positive that tuberculosis can be contracted through the use of milk from tubercular cows. In some instances as high as two per cent of the children fed upon milk may be infected with cattle tuberculosis. Consequently, no health officer can be regarded as having fulfilled his duty to the people of the community if he does not insist upon the testing of every dairy cow in his community with tuberculin and excluding reacting cows from the herd. In cases where such freedom from tuberculosis among dairy herds is impossible to secure, pasteurization should be resorted to by heating the milk to 160 degrees for twenty minutes. Milk after such treatment cannot be kept long and should be placed upon ice, for otherwise it develops a condition more harmful than milk beginning to sour. Even butter may be infected when made from the cream brought from infected herds. Public health can be maintained at its highest point only through coöperation, watchfulness, the use of trained men, and government authority.

The one place above all others where the health of the community is always open to determination

is in the public schools of the town, for here are to be seen the immediate effects of epidemics, unsatisfactory ventilation, the presence of disease germs in the water, and the numerous other things that are likely to affect the children of the town. The installation of fan systems of ventilation in most public buildings that are now being erected has removed some of the difficulties confronting the schoolmaster in the care of the health of the children under his instruction. The placing of drinking fountains in the schoolhouses also and doing away with the old drinking cup has performed miracles in the reduction of the number of sore throats and colds.

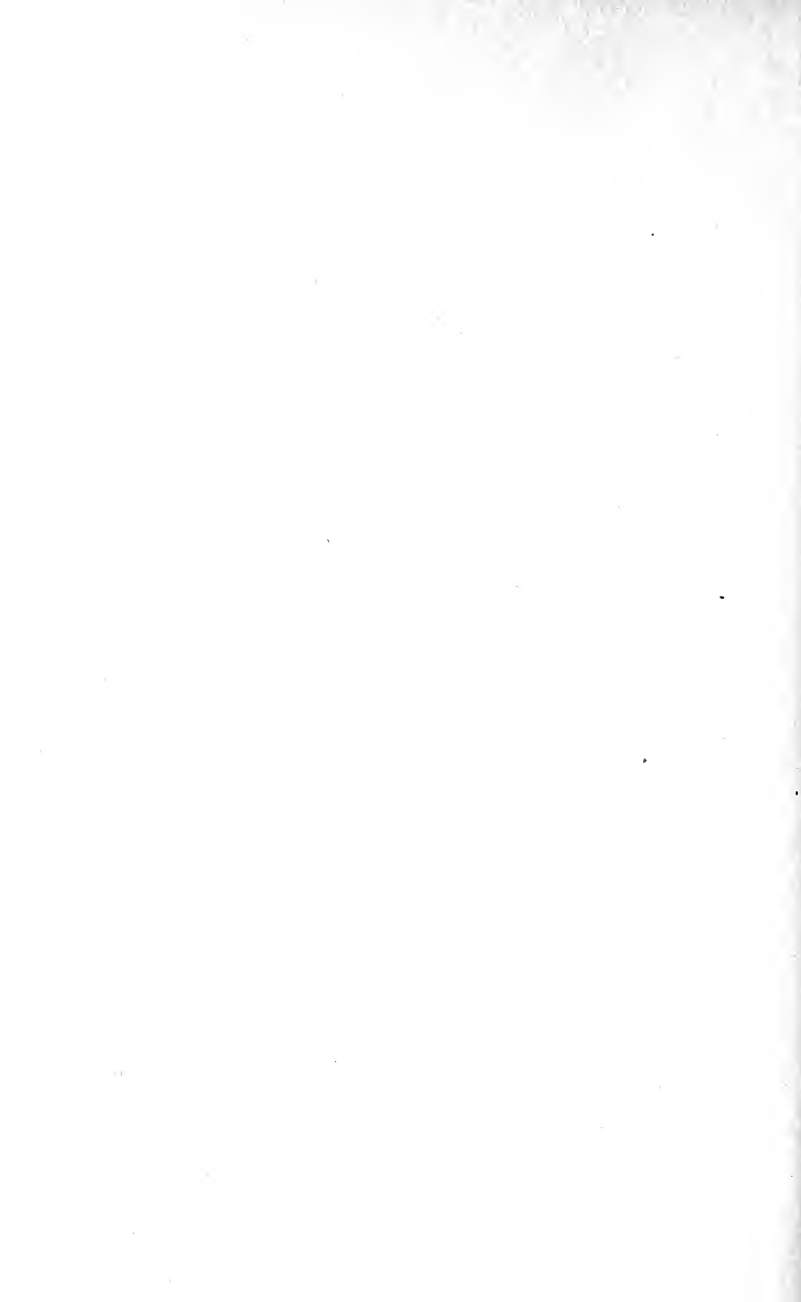
Yet there is much to be done in the public schools of the country. Investigations of one kind or another have shown that children are more or less defective. In one of the schools in Minneapolis a few years ago 710 pupils were examined to get at their physical condition. The children were classified in three groups, known as class I, class II, and class III. The first contained those that were either perfect or practically so, the second those that had slight defects easily removable, and the third those that were more seriously affected. Forty-six were

found to be absolutely perfect, and 202 had defects so trifling that no attention of any kind was necessary; 191 had defects that might need medical attention, and in 271 cases the examining physician specifically pointed out the need of medical treatment. Among these defects were enlarged cervical glands, adenoids, malnutrition, defective teeth, speech, hearing, and vision, and other weaknesses that needed medical attention. In other cities similar conditions have been discovered upon inspections made by examining physicians, and the movement now is steadily toward the appointment of an examiner in every school system of any importance. It has likewise been found that the necessary follow-up work after defects have been brought to light cannot be done by the teacher, but must be done by a trained person. Consequently, the visiting nurse has in many towns of the country become a part of the school system, materially assisting the teacher in the care of the pupils. As our eyes are opened to the immensity of the problem of education, it is more and more brought clearly to light that the teacher cannot carry all the burdens of a properly conducted school system in addition to the instruction which she is

giving. If she attempts it, like Tarpeia of old she is overwhelmed by those from without who were admitted within the walls.

Closely associated with the problem of health existent in the community are many other questions, such as surveillance of food emporiums, disinfection of houses and rooms used by diseased persons, sprinkling and cleaning streets, and the proper means of quarantine. Little by little we are awakening to the importance of the health officer and to the realization that it is quite as necessary to have a man with a social outlook and a wide knowledge of what is done in sanitation as one with a medical training, in order that he may be a successful guardian of the people's health.

THE SECOND FUNDAMENTAL—
SCHOOLS



CHAPTER IV

THE SECOND FUNDAMENTAL—SCHOOLS

THE test of the intellectual and moral conditions existing in a community will always be found in the schools that are maintained. This is especially true, because through the school the continuity of institutions and race experiences are handed on from generation to generation. In the days of the simple community the function of transmitting racial ideas was performed through personal contact and intercourse, and by the sharing of young and old in common activities. But as life has grown more complex, the difficulty of impressing upon each new generation the important phases of life has materially increased, so that the school must be called in to assist in accomplishing this end. The statement, then, at the beginning of the paragraph, that the intellectual and moral conditions of the community are measured by the school, is not a trite statement used to arouse interest, but one full of

deep meanings in which are involved the future of the community.

It may be put down that there are several reasons for the maintenance of the school in any community. The first of these is the necessity of acquiring the tools of learning found in reading, writing, arithmetic, the use of language, the picturing of ideas and the like, and in addition the establishment of the power of enjoyment of a rational character through the opening of the treasure houses of science, literature, and the arts to the young mind. The state would not be satisfied with these personal acquisitions, if it did not hope that through the school there would take place an endowing of the individual with power to serve and an ability to maintain and uphold racial ideals and institutions by constantly renewing them through the child. Put broadly, then, the school is not only a means of developing the individual child, but, from the community point of view, it is a safeguard against deterioration.

The important problems associated with the development of the school system are to be found in four factors: first, the building and its location; second, its equipment; third, the training of the

pupil and the determination of the courses of study; and, fourth, the teacher. It will be the purpose of this chapter to consider each of these factors in order.

The choice of the location of the school grounds is too often determined by political or personal considerations. "Nothing is too good for the school" should be the slogan of the village or town, and on account of that attitude a well-turned piece of ground, centrally located, and facing southeast, should be selected as the place for the building. As to the size of the grounds, the city block too often furnishes the criterion for the determination of the area which school boards have been known to utilize for more than one building. Once a wise man suggested the idea of a school park adequate for all the school buildings of the town and with enough land for playgrounds, gardens and aquariums round-about. Straitened circumstances though have forced most communities to use what they could buy and pay for at the time. This course is often regretted, for posterity blesses the man who sees largely, especially if the community is persuaded to do what he suggests. Every school ought to have land for ade-

quate playgrounds and school gardens, where the children under proper direction, can come into closer contact with the mystery of growing things. Any other plan is short-sighted and foolish.

Today the tendency is toward more permanent materials for school buildings and the giving over of the wooden type, because it is expensive to keep up, likely to be damaged badly in case of fire, cold in winter, and warm in summer. Moreover, the type of building that is now being erected constantly approaches simpler forms in general structure and ornamentation. It is considered important to erect the building from the inside out, as it were, rather than from the outside in. Consequently, emphasis is placed upon lighting. Several forms of buildings are now erected in the cities, among them the H and E types; the first a building of two large wings, with a connecting center, in which are to be found the gymnasium and assembly hall; the second a building with wings extending from the ends and the center. Both of these forms are advantageous, since they allow of expansion to meet future demands. The student of school architecture is impressed with the fact that it has moved forward just as fast as there

has been a development of educational theory, and the larger view of educational possibilities in the field of vocational training, kindergarten instruction, and domestic art has had a marked effect upon the size and form of buildings.

Some of these points may be mentioned in detail.

The basements of buildings should be in the neighborhood of ten feet in height and not more than three or four feet below ground. The area should not be chopped up into little rooms, but so divided as to furnish adequate facilities for manual training, domestic science, or gymnasium work. The elementary schoolrooms ought to be about 24x32, and 12½ feet in height, with the seats so arranged that no child will be more than thirty feet from the blackboard. The general rule for determining the width of the room is to make it twice the height of the window tops from the floor. Long experience has shown that by such a relation proper lighting can be secured when the rooms receive their light from one side. The color of the walls should be light gray or light buff. The red end of the spectrum should never be chosen for colors, but rather the white end. Perhaps, one of the most

important features to be kept in mind is the fact that no schoolroom should be decorated on the basis of home color ideas, since the whole surroundings and point of view of the schoolroom are totally different from those that prevail in the house. The purpose of subduing the colors is to relieve the eyes from strain, and in many schools this is materially helped by placing unbleached muslin over blackboards when not in use. The woods that are used should retain, so far as possible, their natural color, and should not receive high polish or finish, since that reflects light as well as shows the dust. The deadening of floors by the use of asbestos not only saves the floor but renders it difficult to hear the movement of classes from below.

Since mechanical draft is now resorted to as a means of ventilation, transoms should not be placed over doors, and it is a question also whether doors leading out of classrooms should have glass in them, since it is likely to be broken, and, what is more, adds to the possibility of the accumulation of dust. The question of ventilation, though, is by no means settled. The author of an article entitled "Stuffy Rooms" in the November number of the *Popular*

Science Monthly throws much doubt on current theories of ventilation. Discriminating and careful use of windows, aided by electric fans in each room, furnishes a very satisfactory method of ventilating schoolrooms.

In the rooms arranged for the grades, the cloak-rooms should be in the rear of the classrooms and opening upon them with a door at each end. This gives the teacher complete control of the room and makes it possible to enter and pass out without confusion, leaving no possibility of entrance from the outside hall. Various specific arrangements for pupils should be found in the provision of pigeon-holes for their overshoes, lockers placed in special rooms in the basement, and suitable conveniences in well located toilet rooms.

It is now pretty well accepted that no schoolhouse is well planned that does not have an adequate assembly room, which, whenever possible, should be placed on the ground floor. This unquestionably introduces new problems of architecture, but as we are recognizing also the larger use of the schoolhouse as a phase of democracy, there ought to be no question in the minds of boards of education

as to what should be done when new buildings are erected.

The larger vision that has been vouchsafed to the teaching profession in these later years, and in some degree to the patrons of the school, has made material demands for an increase in the amount of equipment in order to meet the needs thus visioned. The utilization of mechanical means, in the resort to power-driven fans, has fairly well solved the difficulties of ventilation, while the problems of sanitation through the adoption of modern plumbing have been met by the turning to good account of water as an agent for sanitary purposes. Only within a short time has it dawned upon directors of school affairs that children are of different sizes, and as a consequence adjustable seats have been brought into the better equipped schools. These seats are of different patterns and can be raised or lowered in accordance with the needs of the individual pupil, and their use should result in a material decline of spinal dislocations and many other minor mal-developments of the physical side of the pupil.

Libraries, too, as a part of the equipment of the school, have long been used, but not so extendedly

as an important agency in instruction as in recent years. In some communities the tendency is to go farther and establish libraries within the schools for loan purposes, with the idea of permitting the books to be taken to the homes of the pupils and kept there for a short time by the patrons of the school. Here and there small groups of photographs have been brought together and placed in folders. These photographs, illustrative of great works of art, of the better types of buildings, and the noblest paintings that have been made by man, have circulated among the people of the community, and the art room has now come to be a feature of school life that grows in importance as its possibilities are recognized.

As a people we have neglected music as an educational factor; the phonograph in one form or another has brought us back to the possibilities of musical education at small expense. As the school becomes more and more a social center where educational work and lectures are carried on for adults, the phonograph will proceed to larger and larger uses, not only there, but in the classroom as well.

The object of all this building and equipment is

the pupil and his training. He comes to school from a great variety of home life and surroundings, with marked differences in his physical, moral, and intellectual care. While it is true that the school is looked upon as a most important means of controlling the future of the state, nevertheless it should be clearly kept in mind that, while it can do much in advancing temperance, thrift, chastity, and civic responsibility, there is no "radical cure for degeneration," as Professor Giddings has well said, "but in a pure and sane family life which disciplines the welcome and untainted child into robust virtue and self-control, and in an unswerving allegiance to duty." There arises consequently the necessity of a real coöperation of the home and school. This, however, cannot be brought about by the subordination of the home, but must be secured by the parents undertaking to do their part in associating the child with racial ideals. Without doubt "the strongest constructive factor in the education of the human being is the settled, quiet order of home." There is, however, a marked movement toward a closer relationship between the school and the home in the spirit of coöperation brought about through the visits

of the parents to the school and of the teachers to the homes. Undoubtedly the time will arrive when everywhere, as it is now in some places, an additional visiting teacher will be employed for the sole purpose of securing a helpful relation between the home and the school; and in consequence the physical, moral, and intellectual care of the child will be shared by the home and the school.

In the old days no effort was made to detect physical weaknesses in the pupil, but in the more modern type of school medical inspection of school children is coming rapidly to the front, with a follow-up nurse system. Recent investigations have revealed that more than half of the school children are hampered in one way or another by physical defects. The ascertainment of these at an early period in the life of the child means a saving of expense to the public school system as well as a material betterment of the child's condition, which becomes more marked as he grows older.

Associated with this problem of physical care is also the one of moral direction. This is an exceedingly difficult question, but the conditions in some schools demand closest watching and careful over-

sight on the part of principals and teachers in order to prevent a wholesale development of immorality. The instillation of moral principles and high ideals is a matter of everyday instruction, together with their presentation through lessons, in reading, history, and science. In Germany steps have already been taken to present some of the simpler phases of sex-hygiene, and the way should be opened in every school in America to an early establishment of similar instruction.

The course of study which exists in any school system is always a complicated matter, far more so than most people are aware, since it is related to race experience. The interest of children in vocational work of various kinds is due almost wholly to an inherited race point of view rather than to any method of presenting such instruction as a matter of tools and of tasks. The demand for changes and additions is so great that the danger to the course of study in our public schools is from its overloading rather than in its failure to present enough. Already there has come to the front an insistent request for modification of courses and rearrangement of elementary and secondary work. One of the sugges-

tions which have been made is that a change, and quite a marked one, ought to take place after the sixth grade in the methods of instruction. Then follows a period of three years, regarded as a unit, with an additional three years as a second unit completing the twelve grades. The point in this suggestion is that pupils, especially boys, should have a new point of view at the age of twelve or thirteen, and that this point of view should again be changed at the age of fifteen or sixteen. This method has been followed in some of the European schools and has the advantage of meeting the conditions more than the plan now generally in vogue. It has also been suggested that promotion by grade should cease after the sixth year, and instruction be by subject while the pupils are in charge of what is called a mother-teacher. This teacher is so called because she looks after the pupils in the study periods and directs their work, thus continuing the element of personality, so important in elementary and secondary instruction. Discussion of a topic like that of a curriculum might well take all of the pages of a book instead of a paragraph in a chapter; still something may be said to indicate the new

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point of view. In some schools special teachers have been delegated to help those who are behind in their work, on the supposition that it is better to open the way than to see the pupil fall by the wayside, while the arrangement of subject-matter and character of instruction have been changed to correspond with the principles of child development.

As a term applied to school children, retardation has to do with pupils who, by reason of physical or mental defects and poor instruction, have failed to maintain their grades. It would seem hardly necessary to urge superintendents to ascertain a fact of this character, but in very few school systems have retardation charts been worked out. "Only half of the children who enter the first grades complete the eighth grade," says one. Interpreted in figures it seems that in Chicago 89 per cent of those entering the first grade reach the sixth grade, 73 per cent the seventh grade, and a few over 50 per cent finish the eighth grade. The method of determining the number of retarded children in any school system is to enumerate the children by ages and grades, and place all of those who are older than a determined age in each grade into a group called "above normal age"

or "retarded." If children enter the first grade at the age of six and a half years, and are not retarded during their course, their ages will be as follows in the grades:

TABLE

First	grade.....	6 to 8 years
Second	"	7 to 9 "
Third	"	8 to 10 "
Fourth	"	9 to 11 "
Fifth	"	10 to 12 "
Sixth	"	11 to 13 "
Seventh	"	12 to 14 "
Eighth	"	13 to 15 "
Ninth	"	14 to 16 "
Tenth	"	15 to 17 "
Eleventh	"	16 to 18 "
Twelfth	"	17 to 19 "

With such a guide for the standard of retardation, a chart can be made to show what the conditions are in every grade of the school system. In the chart given below the facts are shown so clearly and conclusively that the school board to which they were shown were convinced not only of the need of an additional teacher, but also of the wisdom of creating a junior high school from the seventh and eighth grades.* It is interesting to note that this move of

* Prepared by Superintendent F. L. Whitney, of the Grafton, North Dakota, Public Schools.

the school authorities not only corresponded with the facts of the chart, but also agreed with the suggestion of the need of a change in form of instruction at the twelfth to thirteenth years, as stated in the paragraph above. Perhaps it should be added that a man was selected for the principalship of the junior high school.

RETARDATION CHART

Age	GRADE												Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
6	49	8											57
7	6	23	9	2									40
8	2	11	19	5									37
9			5	22	6								33
10			6	11	14	12							43
11			2	2	5	20	8						37
12				5	5	11	12	2					35
13			1		7	6	17	17	5				53
14					2	5	12	9	22	10			60
15					1	1	7	6	14	10	9	1	49
16						1	1	10	9	14	9	4	48
17									3	5	8	11	27
18							1		2	5	6	8	22
19											2	2	4
20									1				1
21													0
21+												1	1
Total	57	42	42	47	40	56	58	44	56	44	34	27	547
Retarded, i. e., above normal age	2	0	9	7	15	13	21	16	15	10	8	2	118
Per cent retarded	3.5	0	21.4	14.8	37.5	23.2	36.2	36.3	26.7	22.7	23.5	7.4	21.5

Of the many devices suggested to meet the problem of retardation, the public summer school has much to commend it, not only as a means of helping backward pupils, but of introducing the children to the industrial processes with which the race has become familiar in its upward movement. This time can be used for instruction in woodwork, basket-making, sewing, domestic science, and in some cases vocational subjects along trade lines can be taught, with the main purpose of arousing intelligence. The public playground when used as supplementary to the summer public school has added much to the success of summer instruction; nor is this to be taken as a belittling attitude toward the matter of playgrounds, for they are useful agencies through which the principles of law, order, and discipline can be well taught, but rather to show the advantage of coordinating them with instruction at the time of the child's most active play. For play is Nature's way of building up power, without which the town child lacks staying qualities. In order that play may count in the course of education, it must be maintained on a permanent basis. This means a permanent staff and a permanent play center. One institution only is

capable of maintaining play on this basis, and that is the school. Moreover, to bring about the possibilities of the play center as an educational factor the community must have confidence in the supervision, and this also points to the school.

A recognition of the problems that have been referred to as physical, moral, and intellectual brings clearly to the front the importance of the teacher. It is perhaps not going too far to say that in the opinion of many men well qualified to present their views there is no more important individual in the community than the teacher, but in general there is no great recognition that he is dealing with the most vital interests of the community. The teacher comes in contact with social conditions, knows when illness exists in the families of the school children, when industrial calamities have fallen upon the people, and, in fact, is entrusted with the most important elements in our social and national development. The attitude toward the teacher has not fully recognized his place in the community, as shown by payment for services. The average salary of the teacher in the United States today is \$53.88 per month, and it will not be until we have given him a longer tenure of

office with a higher salary that we can expect the best men to come in to take places as schoolmasters. Yet the demands for better training and bigger personality, which are more pressing today than ever before, and the number of children in the schools necessitates marked insistence upon better training, better facilities, and greater opportunity.

The administration of the schools has been in the main placed in the hands of boards, usually consisting of comparatively small numbers of persons, though there are exceptions to this statement. There ought to be in every community a school board, whose authority is as wide as that of the community, independent of city councils or county commissioners, with authority to expend money and to levy taxes within their jurisdiction. The support of the public schools amounts to one-fourth or one-third of the total cost of local government, and the funds are raised by apportionment from the commonwealth school funds, state taxes, and local taxes. A term of office ought to be from three to five years rather than for a less period, and the number of the board might well be fixed at seven rather than a smaller or larger number. In their hands should be placed the

trusteeship of the schools. They are the business managers and directors. If they are wise, however, they will turn over to a superintendent, selected for competency, all the problems that are associated with the management of the educational side of the school work, such as the selection of teachers and textbooks, the determination of courses of study, equipment, and the like. As soon as the school board goes into the business of selecting apparatus and school books, of outlining courses of study, and selecting teachers, it is sure to engage in something for which its members have had no special training and for which they are not well adapted. The community looks to it to maintain efficiency, and to do this through competent management, direction, and oversight, rather than through the care of specific details.

Slowly the school boards of the country are coming to recognize the important fact that the school is essentially the savior of American democracy when closely affiliated with the home; that it has an unusual opportunity to widen the scope of education and to extend it from the instruction of children in their infancy and teens to the instruction of adults in

many important matters. It may be urged that such a tendency is beyond the scope of the schools, but looking to Europe we will find that in many countries—in Denmark and Germany, for instance—are to be found schools for adults conducted in the evening under the direction of school boards. Such utilization of the school will mean much in the enlargement of the point of view of the community and in the development of a more intelligent attitude toward all the problems of the community and of the state.

THE THIRD FUNDAMENTAL—MORALS

CHAPTER V

THE THIRD FUNDAMENTAL—MORALS

THERE is no doubt as to the existence of a definite code for the moral guidance of the individual. Upon this point the public is fairly clear, looking to the acceptance of axioms and rules of conduct as the basis of this view. But the code for public guidance is still more or less indefinite. It is not so clear as it should be to men in the community that there ought to be a communalized morality, for clean living and clean thinking apply to the community quite as much as to the individual, each having a conscience. Many citizens are good providers, agreeable fathers and kindly neighbors, without understanding that there is any larger obligation upon them. Despite this general condition, evidences are to be seen now and then of an enlarged sense of social morality creeping into the point of view of even the most backward communities. The "personal liberty" argument, heard so often in the past

and used so freely to justify individual departures from the path of rectitude, is now met by the statement that the community has a standard of conduct and that there is really a social test to be applied to its attitude on moral questions which touches the action of individuals.

The argument for the wide-open town as being good for trade carried much weight in commercial bodies fifteen or more years ago, because it was said men will come to buy where there is to be some excitement and dissipation. But it has been learned since that the business of the town where such an attitude is taken is quite as likely to lead to suspicion of its good-will as to the increase of its reputation for being a joymaker. Moreover, it has been discovered that it is harder to collect debts and sell goods for cash where conditions of that kind prevail than it is in a community where law and order are the rule. The question of what shall be the attitude of the community toward the disturbing element collected in every town is not solely a matter of business; it is a community question and a church question; the latter because the church represents the higher standards of moral attitude.

It has never been discovered that the men interested in the maintenance of the open town are really concerned about the future of the community. Their point of view is to secure as much money as they can from the people who come to them. The amusements, disorderly houses, and even theaters are made to yield a by-product that will draw cash to their coffers. Moreover, an attitude of this kind usually brings about an alliance between the elements that make for disorder and the government. The result is that there creeps in an insidious influence toward increased cost of community management, and materially lowered efficiency of government and business enterprise.

Any community which permits the maintenance of saloons, gambling dens, blind pigs, disorderly houses, low theaters, poolrooms, and disreputable vaudeville is bound to pay the price. Not only as suggested in the paragraph above, but in serious home problems regarding the boy, and even the girl, as well as having greater difficulty in the discipline of the schools. It is true that these excrescences of modern civilization can remain in a community under police surveillance and cater in a way to what might

be called the lower elements in the town. The saloon may even be conducted on a fairly respectable basis, and during the existence of the old type of saloon, where the owner was manager and host, there was something to be said on this point. But in these days of the "line saloon," managed from a city far away, and under the direct charge of men of no reputation, it becomes a distinct menace to the community, not only as a source of temptation to young men, but often as a rendezvous of criminals. The gambling den and the disorderly house are direct offspring of the saloon. They work together, one fitting in with the other, while further down the list are to be found the low theaters and the poolrooms—all joined in the endeavor to produce material for the main hopper. So, too, the vulgar performances of the vaudeville show tend to pull down the standards of morality, to increase the curiosity of young persons, and in time to force them into the road that leads through the poolroom and the low theater to the gambling den, the saloon, and the disorderly house.

The law everywhere provides at least the working machinery for controlling these community menaces,

but under the influence of uncertain public opinion upon moral questions of a community character the usual attitude has been to allow them to drift along under some plan of occasional fines or infrequent arrests of managers. In some instances it has been suggested that the disorderly house, because of its example, should be segregated from the rest of the community, yet at the same time be allowed to have a sort of legal existence under the law. This point has been well covered by Professor Charles R. Henderson in a publication issued by the Russell Sage Foundation, when he states that "so long as public opinion remains what it is the business of prostitution can never be made in any sense legal; it cannot be openly recognized as legitimate; it cannot be licensed; it cannot in any way secure legal standing before the courts; the wages of the harlot cannot be collected by suit at law; the landlord who rents a house for such purposes is liable to prosecution. Any attempt to introduce such laws as those which are in force in some countries of continental Europe would ruin the social and political career of any legislature." While it is true that there have been a few instances of attempts at the license system, yet the

attitude in America is distinctly against any such method. Nor is toleration to be accepted as an attitude that could in any measure receive the endorsement of a self-respecting community. There remains in consequence only one method of dealing with the problem, and that is through increased police vigilance to enforce the law wherever prostitution raises its head.

There are, however, certain preventive measures which can be developed in a community against the social evil through education, greater recreation, better economic conditions, and in provision for institutional care of those who are the victims of the system. The first may be brought about by the serious attention of school authorities to moral standards, the development of domestic science as a home-making factor, and the better grading of children in the schools. The second may be secured by playgrounds, provision for athletics, public baths, and comfort stations, the development of social centers, the supervision of theaters, and the establishment of municipal dancing halls under proper regulation. When it comes to the third point, employers can do something in making the conditions of employment

better, particularly in the instance of young girls, and by promoting higher ideals relative to efficiency, health, and morals, and refusing to employ very young girls and boys for services in their concerns. On the other hand, in towns where many young women resort for employment there can be maintained through the utilization of the Young Women's Christian Association considerable oversight over the welfare of working girls and young women. No community, however, is likely to make progress in these matters unless it is eternally vigilant. It must back its police force, insist upon efficiency of instruction in the schools, and, on the other hand, maintain opportunities for amusement and recreation open to young people after the hours of labor.

In the consideration of forms of amusement maintained for profit, the town councils should establish ordinances that will insist upon the proper conduct of them. The theaters and poolrooms should be closed on Sunday and at an early hour on week days, but in doing this the community should remember that it is necessary to put in their place some substitute; in fact, that the time should be regarded as an opportunity to bring to the attention of a large group

of young men and women some of the higher ideals of living. Whatever may be said relative to the tendency on the part of Americans to give over the church-going habits of their forefathers, it nevertheless remains true that Sunday is a day that should be devoted to personal uplift of both a physical and religious kind. We are told sometimes that the continental Sunday is creeping in upon us; but the continental Sunday has been marked by two things which do not appear in the American attitude toward the first day of the week. In Europe, Sunday morning is devoted to church services and is sacred to them, while the afternoon is given over to the family unit. It is then that the family rules, and as a unit it goes into the open to enjoy the summer afternoon or in the winter finds its way to the theater. In America there seems to be a tendency to neglect the church and to overlook the family as a unit. Consequently the utilization of Sunday as a day in which to present ideals that will uplift is an opportunity that should be seized eagerly in every community. The utilization of Sunday afternoon for the presentation of music of a high character can undoubtedly be brought about in nearly every community. It has been argued

that such a movement breaks down the opposition to the opening of poolrooms and theaters on that day, but in reality there is no basis for such a view. Music is a wonderful factor in the life of the community, a fact that we are just beginning to realize in America. Sunday evening finds a large number of people without church connections seeking some utilization of their time. In several cities the idea of a People's Sunday Evening has been tried, with the result that it has demonstrated its place and work. Says one, reporting upon these results: "Three things have taken place: first, we have learned much regarding the people we desired to help; second, the masses are ready to listen to the truth if presented in a manner free from bias and bigotry; third, the meetings have been the greatest force ever undertaken here to teach non-churchgoers that the church really cares for them in a practical as well as a spiritual way." As a consequence, the community has begun to think of religion in a new light and its effects have reached into the everyday life of the people. In some places lectures of a more secular character might be provided; lectures that would deal with the things that are being done in other communities — some of the problems

arising from evolution, the work of great men for the uplift of humanity, and other subjects that may suggest themselves.

This larger sense of social solidarity that has come into vogue with the opening of the new century has brought with it what is called the school social center. Two things have emphasized the enlargement of the social center idea — one that we have a great capitalization lying idle in the schoolhouses of the country, and the other that we have lost much through our failure to get together as compared with the social activities of the old pioneer days. So, out of these two ideas, with the further feeling that democracy must mean solidarity, the social center has evolved. The principle of the movement has been understood in Europe for a long time, especially in Denmark. The idea is to utilize the schoolhouse in the evenings for social and intellectual purposes, to establish there lectures that will be of interest to the citizens of the community, and to have other means of entertainment and amusement, to create a forum where people can gather in the evening to discuss any problem that may be of interest to them. The whole purpose is distinctly educational. The utiliza-

tion of the schoolhouse as the center of this activity, however, is not an easy matter. To make it a success there must be some individual with a clear vision behind the movement, otherwise it will fail of its purpose. In connection with it various clubs can be established, one to watch the town government and to discuss its needs, and another to read poetry or to study science. By affiliating the town library to the movement the right sort of material can be secured in fiction as well as science for the use of club members. Occasional plays under the auspices of the social center can be presented, plays of good character and that are amusing. It is not necessary that artists be imported from abroad, for without doubt there can be found among the people of the community latent talent that had not been suspected before.

A few years ago it was hardly thought that the universities would come to the rescue of the community seeking an outlet for its social and intellectual energy. The development of the university extension idea, however, has proven to be an exceptionally useful ally to the town working to maintain a higher standard of living. In nearly all the states

universities, founded by public action and supported by public funds, are departments engaged in bringing to the people of the different communities an opportunity to utilize the mass of knowledge and even the equipment of the university, so that the efforts made here and there to uplift social standards have now a means and a facility through which they can accomplish great results. It may be that by more careful thinking out of the problem the social center will become firmly established in the school system and the universities of the states will be able to furnish all that is demanded in the way of assistance.

There is, however, another problem closely affiliated with the existence of the saloon which is quite as much of a social problem as that which finds its center in the schoolhouse. For many years the saloon has provided meeting places for men, and it still continues to play a considerable part in the social life of many towns, villages, and cities. "It is apparent, for one thing," says the Committee of Fifty, "that there are not many centers of recreation and amusement open at all hours to the working people, none that minister to their comfort in such

a variety of ways. The longer one searches for just the right kind of a substitute for the saloon, affording its conveniences without its evils, the more one despairs of finding it. And yet such places are a positive necessity for the social instinct that demands and finds its satisfaction with the saloon as a reality. Work is not and was not meant to be the whole of life. The leisure problem equals in importance the labor problem and surpasses it in difficulty."

The saloon, nevertheless, varies from one which acts as a social club to the positively immoral type which becomes a sort of conduit through which pass off the lowest forms of social sewage. Still it constitutes one of the strongest ties which unite men, and becomes, because of its location, both the official and unofficial meeting place for the discussion of their interests. In vain would the workingman seek elsewhere for the fellowship and recreation which he finds in the so-called "poor man's club." While supplying this want, it does a vast amount of mischief.

Attempts to control the saloon through legislation are to be found in many statute books, varying from a low license system to the Gothenberg plan existent

in Norway. All low license systems fail, because they place no limitation upon the attractiveness of the saloon, nor for that matter does the high license plan restrict to any degree these features, though it usually acts to raise the tone of the traffic and to eliminate the lower and more immoral saloons. The trouble, however, with any license system is that it permits the sale of liquor for private profit. To avoid this difficulty the state has been brought into the field as a liquor dealer, as seen in the South Carolina dispensary system. Prohibition, on the other hand, has much to commend it, though associated with secret traffic and backroom drinking. It is only when the private profits of the saloon business are removed that the saloon will disappear as a social center. The whole trouble with the various enterprises that have been created from time to time to take its place has been that they have never seriously attracted the attention of the people, and the usual reason for their failure is that they have taken too little account of man's social nature. Every town, village, and city where prohibition does not prevail is compelled to face the saloon question, and in the

prohibition territory they are often compelled to deal with the "blind pig" problem.

To attempt, then, to establish some sort of social center that will compete with the saloon requires a knowledge of local conditions and an adherence to a plan which takes into consideration the social nature of man. No cut-and-dried system can produce this result. It is only through a long period of time, in coöperation with the social center developed round about the school, the enforcement of law, and a wider introduction of a greater spirit of philanthropy among the churches that the need for clubs for workingmen can be fully met.

The recreation problem, too, crops out everywhere. Man is a social animal. So we find young people seeking places to dance, where they may have exercise and diversion, and the community fails to meet this need. Private enterprise comes in and establishes dance halls, shooting galleries, billiard parlors, and the like, all of them depending upon man's social nature for their support. One city has recognized this necessity and established what has been called the municipal dance. A big, serious

problem was met in a bold and daring way, and the result has been a revelation to all serious-minded people. The municipal dance has emphasized democracy; it has emphasized respectability; it has opened the way to a good time without any evil communications. The result has justified the effort and should be copied by every community.

All of these things point to the time when the town will come to recognize the fact that good morals are within its control and under its direction through the medium of the proper utilization of time. Suppress evils with a strong hand and build up the right sort of amusements, even though under the direction of municipal enterprises, and the community will invariably have a new moral tone that will bring results little understood or apprehended at the beginning of such a movement. The town that reaches such a point of view will begin to appreciate the fact that it does not move forward, because of competition with some other community, but because it is constantly endeavoring to outdo its own performances and to better its own standards.

THE FOURTH FUNDAMENTAL—
BUSINESS

The figure shows a 10x10 grid of cells. Each cell is either empty (white) or contains a small black circle representing a robot. The robots are distributed across the grid, with some clusters and some isolated units. The distribution is as follows (row, column): (1,1), (1,2), (1,3), (1,4), (1,5), (1,6), (1,7), (1,8), (1,9), (1,10), (2,1), (2,2), (2,3), (2,4), (2,5), (2,6), (2,7), (2,8), (2,9), (2,10), (3,1), (3,2), (3,3), (3,4), (3,5), (3,6), (3,7), (3,8), (3,9), (3,10), (4,1), (4,2), (4,3), (4,4), (4,5), (4,6), (4,7), (4,8), (4,9), (4,10), (5,1), (5,2), (5,3), (5,4), (5,5), (5,6), (5,7), (5,8), (5,9), (5,10), (6,1), (6,2), (6,3), (6,4), (6,5), (6,6), (6,7), (6,8), (6,9), (6,10), (7,1), (7,2), (7,3), (7,4), (7,5), (7,6), (7,7), (7,8), (7,9), (7,10), (8,1), (8,2), (8,3), (8,4), (8,5), (8,6), (8,7), (8,8), (8,9), (8,10), (9,1), (9,2), (9,3), (9,4), (9,5), (9,6), (9,7), (9,8), (9,9), (9,10), (10,1), (10,2), (10,3), (10,4), (10,5), (10,6), (10,7), (10,8), (10,9), (10,10).

CHAPTER VI

THE FOURTH FUNDAMENTAL—BUSINESS

WHILE it is true that towns are created for business, nevertheless business is limited by the community it serves. There are some exceptions to this statement. Roundabout the outskirts of large cities are towns that can be designated as merely abiding places, "sleeping communities," as one wag has put it; and there are other instances where large manufacturing concerns do not depend upon the local market, but find the sale of their goods extended over the whole country. However, the majority of business enterprises discover the limits of their size and importance in the extent and character of the community in which they have established themselves. In a stationary city, one that is not moving forward in population and business enterprise, a business can be extended only within narrow bounds, but in an advancing town the limits of progress are set by those of the district. Nor is it too much to say that

the efficiency of a concern is limited by the conditions under which it exists. The men who are engaged in it, and who manage it, are affected by the atmosphere, social life, and activity of the community; and the attitude of employes rests in like measure upon the economic, sanitary, and moral conditions prevailing there. Consequently, every business man has a close and vital interest in the development of his community, and for him progress in his business is directly associated with advancement in the welfare of the community.

Not long ago a little city of fifteen thousand inhabitants showed how an area within a radius of thirty-three miles could have a larger population, better resources, and facilities for doing business than were to be found in any similar area within four hundred miles of it. This is an illustration of the fact that the line of development for a town lies in the growth of the district in which it is situated. Examples of the truth of this statement are by no means wanting, as they may be seen by any shrewd observer in every part of the country. In the casting of jealous eyes upon larger communities the small town has overlooked the fact that its progress is to

be found in the growth of a comparatively small region. If it cannot manifest its own importance in such a district, the town can hardly expect larger things in a more extended territory. The moral is not far to seek. The small town must begin its industrial career by developing the territory roundabout.

Even in the older places to be found in the Atlantic and Central States there is much to be gained by careful development and exploitation of the immediate territory. Every town is the center of an agricultural district greater or less in extent. It is true that the success of manufacturing communities and the prosperity of the city will depend on the progress of the surrounding agricultural territory and upon the ability of the town to make it tributary to it. It has been said, too, that the amount of business that comes to a city will be almost in proportion to the degree of agricultural development in the surrounding district. Every sort of method has been resorted to in order to secure such a result. Sometimes the problem has been one of attracting settlers and advertisement has been the method resorted to in order to get them to come to the territory; but in

such instances there must always be a real basis for agricultural growth or the advance made is only temporary. Much aid can be secured by the wise utilization of the publications of experiment stations, and of the work of experts and successful farmers. More particularly, the careful gathering of information regarding the results of the cultivation of the soil in the neighborhood of the town, when given reading form in attractive English, will go a long way toward the conversion of the skeptical. Increased facilities, like good roads, rural free delivery, the local library, and the establishment of fairs and market days, and providing for good entertainment and social opportunities, are effective influences in bringing the town into closer touch with the people residing in the district.

The placing of the emphasis upon home trade is another method of producing closer contact between the purchasing power of citizens and the products of the community, although there is danger of carrying this idea to the point of forcing individuals to buy when it is against their own advantage to do so from an economic point of view. In time a town grows by depending upon its ability to justify its

existence as an economic factor in the district. Its progress, too, will depend upon its ability to develop an all-round industry, so that it will not only be in a position to supply its own needs, but, in addition, be in a position to secure and continue the employment of its labor. Sometimes the home trade idea can be fostered by giving slight preferences to the purchasers in the local market. This is justifiable on the ground of the saving in packing, transportation, and other expenses which arise in the case of shipment by train.

In almost every community the statement is made that manufacturing plants are soon to be brought to the community. This helpful belief is warranted just so far as there is a basis for the statement and the wisdom of the citizens to bring conviction in the hearts of plant-owners seeking new fields. The old day of bonuses has, in a measure, passed by. The securing of factories today depends almost wholly upon the advantages that are to be found in a community. Thus the possession of raw materials, the presence of an adequate labor supply, and the existence of water power contribute materially toward bringing to a community new manufactures. And if

to these are added adequate markets, with transportation facilities, there is no doubt about the development of them. One of the difficult problems with which a community is confronted is that of proper power, and in these days of electricity it is coming to be recognized that a central power plant, a sort of power incubator, will attract in the long run a considerable number of small factories, providing there is a market for the output. In order to get factories there must be clear evidence that the concerns can survive, and perhaps nothing demonstrates this so clearly as the actual presence of successful factories. So one of the things that a community ought always to do is to maintain well what is already within its boundaries. New industries can be attracted by being shown favorable conditions, and this rests fundamentally upon a careful study of the local conditions as to the points that have been enumerated above. It would not be beyond reason for a commercial club to call in an industrial engineer or business expert to make an examination of the facilities which they have at hand, so that a careful presentation of them upon a scientific basis can be made. The day of stealing plants has gone by, and the day of

moving plants of no value can hardly be said to be at hand. The purpose nowadays in securing factories is to get a plant that promises success, one that has some free capital after buildings and machinery have been provided. The emphasis ought to be placed upon small plants rather than large ones, since it means greater diversity of industry in the long run and steadier employment of men. Certain advantages are usually held out to new concerns in the form of a low tax rate, adequate labor supply, good shipping facilities, and, if necessary, proper banking support.

There are various plans which have been suggested from time to time to aid manufacturing plants seeking a new home. One is by direct gift of money, which is to be used for the purpose of enlarging the capital. Another is by subscriptions to the stock, which oftentimes places a heavy burden upon individuals. A third is the guaranty plan of a certain percentage of capital or of so much per employe; for instance, the community may undertake to give five per cent or ten per cent of the capital invested, or to pay annually so much per each laborer employed in the factory. Another plan which has attracted a

great deal of attention everywhere is the one known as the Williamsport plan, which is, after all, an arrangement for the guarantee of bank credit. It is based upon what might be called subscription credit, the subscribers agreeing to furnish any amount they may be called upon for (up to the total of their subscription) in the case of failure of borrowers to make returns of loans. The contract is made for a year and attorneys-in-fact appointed to administer the subscription. Business concerns have been induced to go to a town and are guaranteed a certain amount of credit. On making application for a loan, the attorneys-in-fact, after satisfying themselves regarding the need of the applicant, endorse the paper to the amount of the loan approved and indicate what bank is to furnish the money. If the borrower meets his obligation, the subscribers have no knowledge of the transaction, but if he fails the subscribers must pay to the bank whatever deficit exists; but no subscriber is liable for more than his proportionate share of the total subscription. In the case of Williamsport, three subscriptions have been made, the first of \$215,000, the second of \$461,000, and the third of \$500,000, and the plan has been highly

successful. It is a recognition, after all, of principles that have long been applied in the rural regions of Denmark and Germany in the matter of establishing community credit. It is based upon the idea of substituting community credit for individual credit, and is an instance of what can be done where harmony and the coöperative spirit exist in a community.

In the early development of new countries the tendency is to lay the emphasis upon one line of industry. There are many examples of towns that owe their origin to some one industry, such as that of lumber, and come to be known as one-line towns. So long as Nature holds out and furnishes the raw materials, the noise of mill and hoist are heard night and day, while strong men of the roaming type move restlessly up and down the streets looking for excitement. The end comes, the mills move away; what then is to continue the town? This is the test of the work that has been done, the determination of the value of organization, and the searching of the confidence and foresight of the citizens in the future of the place. Looked at superficially, the situation just described might appear hopeless, but many a place has grown greater

than before, realizing that it must create factories, utilize the labor supply at hand, and develop the agricultural opportunities roundabout. Thus things previously overlooked are found to have an economic future that will last as long as the town, but it is essential that the situation be recognized before the one industry has ceased to be, for ten years is a short time in the history of any community. A town where manufacturing has taken place possesses at least fair transportation facilities, banks accustomed to lend on products, and a basis for a labor supply. The local situation naturally determines the successors of the primary forms of manufacture, but inventiveness, foresight, and courage will bring success from such a situation.

The distributor performs quite as important a function in the development of business as does the manufacturer. Yet he finds increasing competition everywhere, from wholesale merchants or manufacturers who are endeavoring to sell direct to the retail trade, and the retail merchant, and in his conflict with the mail-order houses. Occasionally the argument is heard that the merchant in the community pays his part of the taxes, supports the church and school, and

bears his share of the burden of keeping up the town, and consequently is entitled to the support of his fellow citizens. He feels that he is not being dealt with justly when they make purchases outside of the home town. This, however, is a parasitic argument. The community is not interested in maintaining any man who is not able to supply the goods and sell them in competition with other merchants either at home or abroad. The mail-order house succeeds because it has the stock, and facilities, and the organization to do the business. The local merchant fails in the competition because he is hampered by lack of business knowledge, the failure to buy on the best basis, and inability to see the trend of business. He is usually an opponent of the parcels post, fearing that the distant metropolitan store will be favored as against his own. But a customer in most cases wants a particular article as quickly as it can be obtained, and he wants also to inspect his purchases before accepting them. This he can do through the local store to better advantage than elsewhere. Moreover, in the matter of credit, the payment of money, and the returning of unsatisfactory articles, he is able to secure better satisfaction than he can

in dealing with a business house far away. The parcels post in reality opens to the small merchant an opportunity to secure all the advantages of a large business at a lower rate of cost. The mail-order house today does business by freight and by post, and the establishment of the parcels post will not materially enlarge the business that they are now carrying on. There is no gainsaying that the mail-order business possesses great possibilities in scope and volume, and that it has taken some trade away from the country merchant. It is doubtful, however, if it is really a serious menace to him. While saying this, it must be recognized that he will nevertheless be compelled to inaugurate better methods, to make more careful selection of stock, and to carry on his buying more directly with the manufacturer, saving so far as possible the wholesaler's profits. That the country merchant can live under such competition would seem to be demonstrated in the history of the one-line retail shop that has made its appearance everywhere in the largest cities while still in competition with the department store. In the final analysis the advantage to the consumer would appear to be in his dealings with the retail

store; but he will buy where he can buy cheapest, and if the small merchant can meet this point there is no question but that in the long run he will hold the consumer in face of the competition of the mail-order business.

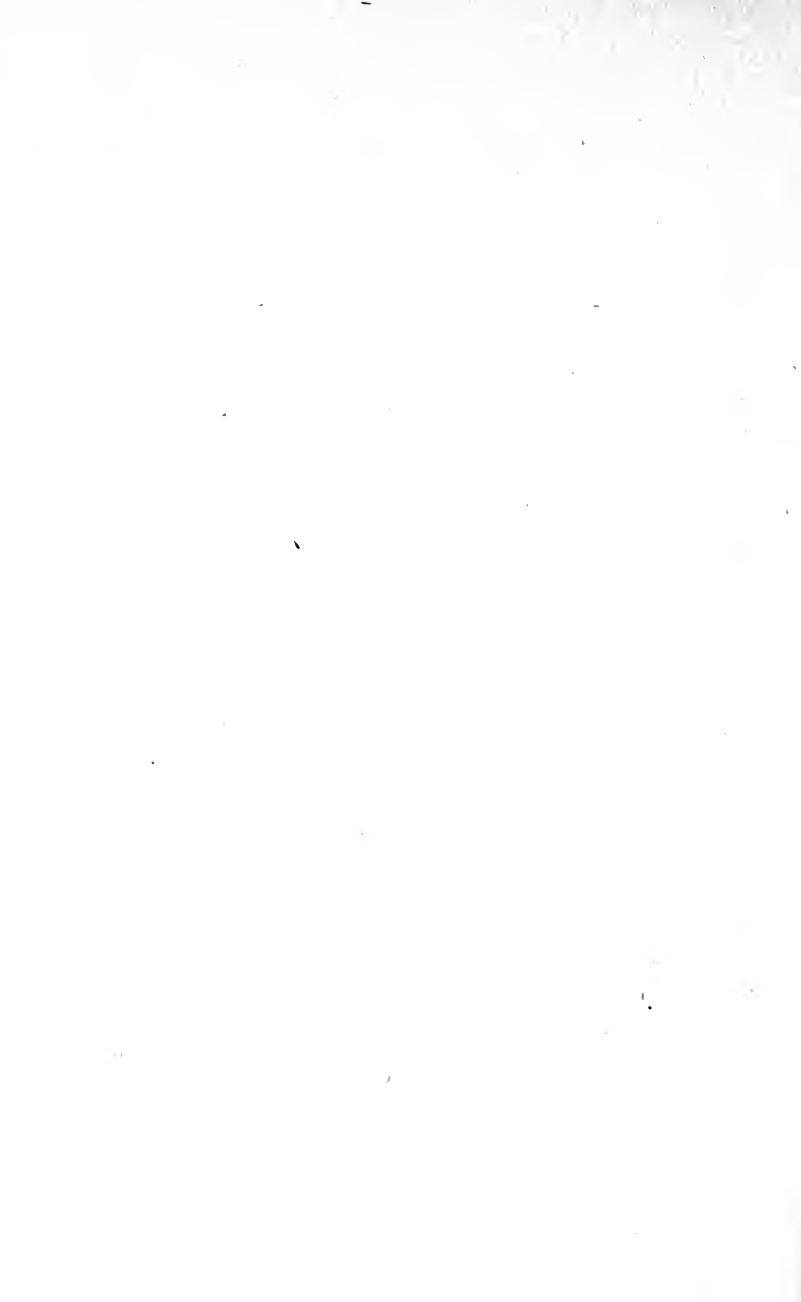
Buying in small quantities has always brought with it an added financial burden and increased cost of handling. There would seem to be no reason why the country merchants on the same line of railroad might not unite their forces. Through their combined purchasing power they would secure all the advantages of the lower prices, better railroad rates, and added banking facilities. To illustrate: if a half dozen merchants in a neighborhood could agree to buy their supplies through one purchasing agent, guaranteeing jointly their credit, they would be able to get the low prices due to purchasing in large quantities, secure carload rates, and get from the banks the funds necessary to pay their bills, securing two or three per cent discount for cash. These savings would amount to a very considerable profit. Besides the method just suggested, there would appear to be no reason why the different merchants in the community might not issue a joint

catalogue, in much the same form as those of mail-order houses, showing what they have to sell. The opportunity to select goods leisurely and to comprehend fully the proposed prices and conditions are especially enjoyed by those purchasing by catalogue. If the consumer not only could see the article in the printed form, but in addition could examine it in the store after he had learned about it, a great many advantages would arise which ought to result in increased sales. Clean stores, bright stocks, and care as to the immediate wants of consumers cannot but produce satisfactory results. In too many instances merchants have gotten into the habit of buying goods along the line of least resistance. They have established credit and they know the house. Unless a merchant is alive as to what is going on, he will find that no wholesale house can give him the advantages of special concerns that are engaged in the importation or manufacture of articles. This is illustrated again and again, and if the merchant does not watch the price lists of all kinds of manufacturers in special fields in which he is dealing, he is bound to compare unfavorably with his competitor.

The many items that go to make up the cost of

doing business do not rest alone upon the individual. Insurance, for example, depends upon the character of fire protection and the kind of buildings that have been erected. If it is a wooden town, then insurance rates are almost prohibitive, but by combination the merchants of the community can secure better buildings, better fire protection and lower rates of insurance. The price of getting on in business is, like the price of liberty, eternal vigilance, and it is only by watching all of the factors involved that the merchant can be sure that he can hold his place and secure his profit.

All of this goes to show that the continuance of any particular type of business in a community depends upon its economic efficiency. If it is not able to meet the competition with which it is confronted, the chances are that it will not be long-lived. Old machinery is forced out of use, new types of organization come in, and the same will undoubtedly be true with a business organization.



THE ENTRANCE TO THE TOWN

CHAPTER VII

THE ENTRANCE TO THE TOWN

IN the olden days the stranger who entered a European city, whether on foot, horseback, or in a carriage, passed through an impressive gateway, often highly ornamented and in many instances marked by great architectural beauty. The need of a wall about a town has gone, and with it has vanished the formal gate. Today references to the gateway of the city are largely figurative forms of speech; still, it may be said that the points where the traveler first comes in contact with the town might be called in modern parlance the entrance to the community. The wonderful railway stations on the European continent, and even those in America that are the results of years of waiting, vast expenditures of money, and the utilization of great engineering skill, are referred to by the citizen as the gateway of his city. Impressive entrances to a town cannot be built in a day; yet the small community can do many things in

a modest way to give the stranger entering it an impression that will be lasting. One of the first of these things the town can do is to improve its street lighting. We are immeasurably behind European cities both in the quality of light and in the manner of arranging our lighting systems. Some towns have begun to appreciate this point and the so-called "White Way" has made its appearance in many places. The demand for better lighting has come largely from business interests. In a number of towns the expenses of installation and maintenance have been borne by them. The customary arrangement includes ornamental posts with supported clusters of lights. These posts are arranged along the streets at intervals of from one to two hundred feet. Outside the central business district, ordinary gas lamps or swinging arc lamps furnish the light for the rest of the town. The arrangement is distinctly American in that it solves but a small part of the problem. A number of years ago great towers were built and upon these powerful arc lights installed for the purpose of furnishing light. Such an arrangement made heavy shadows, thus defeating its own purpose. The tower of twenty-five to fifty

feet, when well located, furnishes attractive and effective lighting. The gas lamp is less satisfactory than the frequently placed electric lighted globe. Like other matters, lighting for a town should be carefully planned. Such plans should include provision for lighting the business section and in addition means for lighting residence districts. Of the many features of town development, the one that impresses all visitors alike is the beauty and the adequateness of the street lighting.

It has come to be a byword that the worst part of the town is always seen from the railway, and unfortunately there is much truth in this statement, for in most places the railway is where the dirt and filth of the community are accumulated. Despite this fact, there are some evidences that the railway may be made almost a thing of beauty by the utilization of green banks and shrubbery. The contour of the town may be broken agreeably by planting rows of trees and groups of shrubs along the right of way. Little by little we are recognizing in America that the railway station furnishes a really great opportunity to advance the point of view of the community. So we are copying the attractive appear-

ance of the railway station in England, both in the character of the buildings and in the lawns and planting about the place. The very fact that the railway station is a center of traffic necessitates some adequate setting. In front of it should be an open space, which ought to be well arranged so as to give some dignity to the main entrance of the town. Moreover, the stranger who steps out of the station ought not to be in danger from the traffic which is passing by. There should be in fact a sufficiently wide plaza before the entrance of the station to give him adequate protection, whichever way he may turn. It has been suggested by some landscape architects that a small park near a railway station is of untold benefit, because it gives to travelers who are compelled to wait over a train a chance to spend their time in the open air and to secure relief from the noise of the station. Provision of such a character would cause the traveler to hold in his mind a grateful memory of the town where he was allowed to wait amid the surroundings of nature.

In American towns the place and position of the railway is practically determined before the town reaches any great importance. If the station can be

located at one side of the town, with a street leading up to the main portion, it is likely to prove a more satisfactory arrangement than if it stood in the center of the community with all the noise and dirt that accompanies any railway traffic. The station itself should be well designed, built of substantial material, and in keeping with the importance of the community. Inside cleanliness should be insisted upon, though this in too many instances seems to be impossible to secure; and one other thing relative to the order upon platforms might be emphasized, namely, giving instructions to town marshals and the officers in charge of the railway station to keep young people off of the platforms and out of station buildings unless they have specific business there. In some places there may be seen young girls and irresponsible boys on the platforms watching and ogling any stranger who happens to step off the train. In the mind of the thinking person this leaves a bad impression as to the attitude on the part of such communities.

Next to the railway station in creating first impressions upon the traveler is the hotel. Much might be said about the hotel of the small town

relative to the failure of its management to realize their opportunity and the general discomfort that is characteristic of the average hostelry. The hotel is the city's guest chamber. In the larger places it may rest upon a business basis, since the demands of the traveling public must be fully met under the competition that exists there. But in the smaller places the hotel falls into the hands of almost anybody and there is a complete failure to recognize the important functions which it performs. All traveling men know that a good hotel is to be found in but few towns. Naturally many a community is passed by in order that the traveler may find a comfortable place in which to spend his Sunday. It is not the cheapness but the comfort that appeals. The importance of possessing a good hotel has never been given the consideration that it should have received, although there appears to be sufficient reason why the commercial club in every community should give this matter its attention.

The problem of securing a hotel with satisfactory accommodation, however, is not a very difficult one. It requires a man of some imagination, of ability, and ideals, to manage it.

There must be plenty of air in the rooms, fresh paint, cleanliness, and comfort. Simplicity other than ornateness should obtain, and if round about the building there is a patch of lawn showing evidence of care, the traveler at once comes to the conclusion that here is a place where rest and quiet can be had. Fresh air is to be regarded as a more satisfactory thing to have in the lobby of the hotel than stale tobacco; nor should the hotel-keeper allow loafers to continually utilize the room in the lobby of his building.

The true test of a hotel management is to be found in the dining-room. If the average hotel manager would cease to imitate the city hotel, dispense with the numerous small dishes that are served, and fall back upon simple meals, with good bread and butter, there is no doubt but that a reputation could be established both for him and the town. A service of good fruit, chicken pie or hot roast, with large cups of good, hot coffee, furnish a basis for meals that will remain a long time in the memory of the patrons. Add to this the absence of flies and the presence of clean linen, clean dishes, and an attitude of courtesy on the part of the hotel people,

and nothing can prevent the man who runs such a hotel from coming into his reward. It has been suggested, too, that many of our traveling public have reached a somewhat dyspeptic condition. Instructions to waitresses to recognize this fact and to give the crank something to eat that may not be on the bill of fare would help materially in creating popularity. The hotel man can be helpful to the people of the community by giving dinners for special occasions and by relieving the ladies in the matter of their luncheons and entertainments. By so doing he can occupy a large place in the community and may regard himself as a man who is giving both help and pleasure to humanity.

"The play's the thing" said one of Shakespeare's characters several hundred years ago, and in this statement we have in the theater another entrance to the community. Practically every community has some sort of a hall where shows are put on the boards; oftentimes these are exceedingly shabby and only the cheapest kind of plays appear. In most instances individuals control this great public educator, and are allowed to do so without any re-

monstrance on the part of the municipality. The little city of Red Wing, Minnesota, a number of years ago was left a memorial theater by one of its citizens. The control of it was placed in the hands of a board of trustees and they were given power to carry on the business of the theater, to engage plays and concerts and entertainments. From time to time a vote of the community was taken as to what they should have, and the result has been a marked uplift in the character of entertainment offered in that community. A theater ought to be an attractive building, not overly ornate, but clean, and, if possible by any means whatsoever, advertisements should be left off of the drop curtain. In time we shall recognize that the municipality ought to own the theater, That it even should have, where it can afford it, a municipal orchestra, that the entertainment of the community should be under just as direct supervision as education. Such a program is undoubtedly a long way off, but in the meantime every community can take into consideration the problem of the theater and attempt to eliminate some of the tawdryness and meanness of existing theatrical presentations.

The city of Northampton, Massachusetts, has initiated what is a new experiment in American life, a theater owned by the municipality and operated under its control.

There is nothing new in a municipal theater. Such theaters date back to the early days of the Christian era, and probably grew out of the still earlier custom of pagan Rome of furnishing entertainment for the people. Such theaters are familiar to the people on the Continent of Europe. A well-informed writer in the *Boston Transcript* says that "the European takes his municipal theater as a matter of course, just as he takes his municipal schools, his municipal art museum, his municipal playground." There is really no reason why the people should not provide for themselves a cheap and pure entertainment as well as a cheap and good education; no reason why they should not own and operate for their own benefit a theater as well as a museum. This, however, never has been done in America, nor, so far as we know, in England. One contrast between the results of the English and the German system is noted by this writer in the *Transcript*: "In Germany there are practically no traveling companies. Each city, even the smallest, has its independent local playhouses, whose actors and stage directors mount new pieces as soon as some experimenter has proven them successful or interesting elsewhere, and use them as part of a large and shifting repertory. In England it is the opposite. There you find only one center for

theatrical production — London — and a play once successful runs for many months. In America we have many cities all bound together by a great touring system over which a play travels from town to town. The resident stock company of merit is almost unknown, especially in the smaller cities. Repertory and change of bill is rarer than in England."

Another result of this contract is that the smaller towns and cities in America rarely get good plays, and still more rarely good companies. Apprentices learn their trade on the road. One-night performances are the rule. Plays which are to legitimate drama what pictures chalked on the sidewalk are to legitimate art, are customary. The managers depend on striking, sensational, and bizarre effects. The actors and actresses, having no reputation to win and none to maintain, have very little spur to their artistic ambition.

It may be noted incidentally, that the municipal theater is not without its economic value to the city. Hitherto the road shows which played in Northampton took out of the city a large percentage of the receipts. With this new idea in operation, all the money spent for the theater by the citizens remains in the community. The members of the company find their homes in the city, and all materials for scenery and work upon the stage are supplied by the residents of the city. Therefore large amounts of money which hitherto were taken out of Northampton by road shows, are now returning through the

channels of mercantile business into the pockets from which they came. This fact is worth being borne in mind by the citizens of other municipalities in considering the practicability of establishing a municipal theater for their own community.*

Without thinking anything about it, most communities have lost a real opportunity to impress upon themselves as well as upon visitors the fact that there is a center to the town. Under our triple form of government found in nation, country, and city, the usual custom has been to locate public buildings in different places. The varying degree of influence that has been brought to bear in the three instances seems to make it impossible to concentrate the ownership of government property, and as a consequence there is no centralization of public buildings in most towns. The bringing together of the more important buildings round about a square has been designated as the creation of the civic center. When such a thing is planned in advance by one man and where sufficient scope has been given to him the result is imposing and effective. Without question the effect of our public buildings is lost in most communities.

* *Outlook*, Dec. 21, 1912.

Even the placing of them along the same street or on the river bank results in a picturesque setting that is impressive, for such grouping of buildings helps the appearance of all. The main center in such a plan should be occupied by the government buildings, and another center, such as an educational one, would occupy another place in proximity to the first. In too many instances it is almost too late to develop anything in the way of a civic center on account of the high price of property and the fact that buildings already have been placed. But where it is impossible because of relocations, or in the case of the building of a new community, the central point should be selected where people are likely to congregate, where, in fact, there is a centering of the main traffic lines of the town, and at such point the more important buildings of the community can be erected.

A consideration of the points raised in this chapter as to the beautifying of the railway station, the proper conduct of the hotel, the direction and development of the theater, in order to make it educational in character, together with the grouping of public buildings about a square, would prove of great benefit to the community, because the town

would be set out in marked contrast to its neighbors. Such results require thinking in advance, but there is hope, for we are beginning to realize that building towns is not a mere matter of letting them "just grow" like Topsy, but a matter of planning long in advance of performance.

GOVERNMENT AND ADMINISTRATION

CHAPTER VIII

GOVERNMENT AND ADMINISTRATION

WHILE a great municipal awakening has been going on in America, with the object of quickening an appreciation of municipal obligation, of making known existing conditions, of familiarizing citizens with municipal government, of securing efficiency and encouraging the social forces for betterment, there has been at the same time a tendency everywhere to minimize city functions. The law has determined the powers which a municipality may exercise and laid these down in express words, so that the object of municipal government must be clearly declared for any acts beyond the scope of the powers conferred, and any doubt as to them must be determined by the courts. Exactly the opposite attitude exists in Europe, where the freedom of the city to carry on such functions as it thinks necessary is undenied. Primarily a town is an agency for carrying on local government. As such it is the

agent of the people. Secondly, it acts as the agent of the state. These two functions include all that a city may do or may be called upon to do.

In its organization a city exists for the sole purpose of promoting the general welfare, and in order to accomplish such results it must necessarily engage in various enterprises to care efficiently for the welfare of the population. Because it is responsive to the public will, it should be kept clearly in mind that a city cannot respond to the business motive of making profits, and the science of governing a city becomes really a method of doing. As an agent engaged in satisfying local needs, the municipality, large or small, must maintain some public utilities, such as means of communication, transportation, the providing of light and water, the maintenance of markets, the disposal of wastes, the protection of life, health and property, the direction of charities and corrections, the conduct of education, the providing of recreation in playgrounds and parks, and even the construction and management of municipal housing for a part of the population; all of these fall within the scope of what a municipal body may be expected to do. In addition to these direct serv-

ices, the municipality must raise money for the maintenance of government. This may be from the direction of property which it owns, from the proceeds of loans, or as a consequence of gifts and legacies. Police regulations, too, unfortunately, may furnish through the medium of fees, licenses and franchises a considerable income, while the public works may actually earn a surplus over and above the cost of operation. The main source of the city's income, however, is from general and special taxation due to local improvements. The functions enumerated thus far may be carried to almost any end, especially in the protection of health and the guarding of life and property. So the city must share with the state the problem of the administration of justice, the prosecution of criminals, the care of defectives, and sometimes it even may subsidize industry to furnish opportunities for self help.

As in federal and state government the legislatures have followed the trend of organization that has been laid down in constitution and law and applied this to the government of towns and cities. While municipal government is the most difficult of all government, because the problems with which it

has to deal are nearest the people, yet the type of legislative organization, of state executive, and even the method of taxation, have been carried over into municipal organization. It was natural that the older forms of charters should provide for two houses in the legislative division of government and divide the authority of the executive between the council, a group of boards, and the chief officer of the municipality. It was natural, too, that administrative supervision under such conditions should be delegated to committees without any special coöperative relation between them, and the ward system, a copy of representation by states, be engrafted upon the government of towns, creating thereby a demand for local advantages and making it difficult to place responsibility upon the members of the council.

Whatever may be the form of government that exists in a town, there are certain phases which should be the same for all types of charters. Without question a town should have powers sufficient to meet all the local needs within its territory; it should insist upon a merit system of employees; it should have a simple organization with a few elective offices, so that the question of responsibility for the

actions of the government might easily be determined. Moreover, the policy of the city should be adapted to the needs of the people, and the administrative service should be competent and continuous. A great deal of stress has been laid upon the form of government rather than upon its spirit. The spirit is a thing which constantly changes; the form continues. Hence it is essential in the working out of the charter that the form should encourage and develop the spirit of good government. In this direction is to be seen the tendency to enlarge the functions of the voter in the business of government through the agencies of the initiative, referendum and recall, and at the same time to reduce the number of representatives so as to bring the people into closer contact with the governing groups. In most charters very little provision is made for unifying the relations between departments. Even the meeting of heads together to discuss municipal affairs is looked upon as a tendency to create a machine that may be used to perpetuate the tenure of office.

Putting it briefly, there are four kinds of city charters,—the mayor type, the council type, the commission form, and the corporation form. In the

mayor type the effort is made to throw upon the mayor the larger part of the responsibility, reducing the council to a legislative group and insisting that the mayor shall carry the burden of administration. The council type provides that the council shall have unusual authority in the selection of officers and in the control over them, leaving to the mayor the conduct of general executive matters and the administration of the department of police. In both instances various provisions may exist for the election of members of the council. They may be chosen at large, from wards, or from districts; and in the case of the mayor type of council, a double council, consisting of a considerable number of members, may be a part of the machine. The term of the mayor varies from one to five years, with a two year term as the customary one. In the working of these forms much criticism has been made upon the point that it is difficult to fix responsibility for the action of the government, and so great has this criticism become that a marked tendency has set in toward the so-called commission plan of government.

As early as 1870 a commission form of government was tried in several cities of the South and

proposed in New Orleans. The experience of Galveston brought about a revival of the commission plan, and the success of a government conducted with a purpose was so great as to give to the experiment an unusual amount of publicity. Adding to the commission idea the provisions for the initiative, referendum and recall, the people of Des Moines inaugurated a new type of commission with provisions for non-partisan primaries. The commission plan of government ordinarily provides for five commissioners. One, acting as mayor, is the head of the department of public welfare; another is elected as head of the department of ways and means, under which are found the work of accounting and finance; a third has charge of the public utilities; a fourth looks after the public property in the form of parks, buildings, and fire protection; and the fifth may have charge of the public ways, such as walks, streets, and alleys. In each of these departments the heads appoint their subordinates, and the commission acts both as a council and as executive officers.

The advantage gained through this form of government is in the ability of the people to place re-

sponsibility, and in case of the failure of an officer to carry on his department in accordance with the provisions of the law, to recall him and elect another in his place. It may be said that though there are a number of instances where this plan has worked successfully, yet the interest in it, due to unusual conditions in most of the towns that have adopted it, has given a spirit to the conduct of government that would for a time have carried any form to success. The real test will take place a few years hence, when the "interests" that are involved will possibly have learned how to control or how to secure their ends through the medium of a new form of government.

One difficulty exists, however, in the commission type of government, which is true of all forms of government in the United States. This difficulty has its rise in the egotism of the democracy, an egotism that takes it for granted that a man from a store or from any other business will make a good governing officer. We have yet to learn that municipal government must be conducted by experts. This secret England has learned and Germany has long possessed, with the result that the success of the town governments in those countries is largely due

to the utilization of the abilities of men long trained in governing cities. It is with something of this view in mind that a number of the smaller communities have appointed a city manager. Their idea is that while the commission plan places authority in the hands of a small group of men and thus centralizes it, yet it is practically impossible to hold the group responsible for its acts when it is not collectively responsible. So these towns have determined to give over the legislative and executive functions into the hands of a smaller number of men, and looking upon them practically as directors of the corporation, authorize them to select some one who is qualified to run the city's business. The attitude in the adoption of a plan of this kind, as seen in the specific instances of Lockport, Pennsylvania, and Staunton, Virginia, is that the business of a town should be conducted like that of a corporation, the council acting as a board of directors to take the place of the council committees. The general manager is employed to do the work of the departments and of the committees. All purchases are made by the manager after estimates of the needs of the town have been presented. He employs all the servants

of the town, and he is held responsible for the work that he does by the council group. This plan is now being followed in some of the newer towns of Canada, and it is said to simplify the conduct of municipal government very materially and to increase its efficiency.

It has become more and more apparent to the people dwelling in municipalities, be they large or small, that the street railway, gas, electric light, and water services can be performed so as to further the ends of social welfare. Thus the lowering of the price of gas in the city of Glasgow eliminated the ineffective cooking stoves and gave to many people in humble circumstances an opportunity to provide warm meals, which had not been possible before. The extension of light and water service beyond the ordinary limits encourages the development of living away from the crowded centers, and as a consequence has much effect upon the growth of population. Moreover, there is a feeling that by the utilization of the municipality as a means of conducting these services corporate influences can be eliminated from political life and so better government be

brought about. Thus, it is declared that municipal ownership means a more efficient and extended service, cheaper rates for consumers, the utilization of the profits for municipal enterprises, the improvement of the conditions of labor and industry, the working of the public service for the entire community, and the control of the municipal monopoly, not by persons uninterested in the town's development, but by the citizens themselves. It is the conclusion of the Public Ownership Commission of the National Civic Federation that (1) "public utilities can best be conducted under a system of legalized and regulated monopolies. (2) Again, public utilities, in which the central motive is the charge, should be operated by the public. (3) The success of municipal operation of public utilities must depend upon the existence in the city of a high capacity for municipal government. (4) Franchise grants to private persons should be terminable after a fixed period and subject to purchase at a fair value. (5) Municipalities, too, should have the power to enter the field of municipal ownership upon popular vote under reasonable regulation. (6) Private companies

operating public utilities should be subject to public regulation and examination under a system of uniform records and accounts and of full publicity."

In the statements given above we have a summary of the possible attitudes of a town toward public utilities. Water and sewerage without doubt should be provided for by the public, and whatever franchises are granted by the town should be terminable and subject to purchase at a fair value. In all instances such companies should be subject to public regulation and examination, with full publicity of accounts, opportunity being provided for the municipality to enter the field upon popular vote under reasonable conditions. This would seem to summarize the main features of municipal ownership. Sometimes a town is confronted with the difficulty of securing the necessary capital to carry on a public utility, and the agreement which it makes with the private company may be more liberal than it otherwise would be on account of the conditions. But in these cases the general view of the situation is such that provisions for ownership in the future, publicity of accounts, and regulation of service always can be made a part of the contract.

We are beginning to realize the important fact that an honest people cannot do right if they are misinformed. In all instances where changes in the form of town government are urged the emphasis is placed upon greater publicity, more economy and efficiency of administration. In bringing about so desirable an end the leading factor is the maintenance and adherence to a budget system of finance. A budget includes a complete statement of expenditures as well as the income and means of raising revenue. It discloses why expenditures may be greater than income. Without it a council cannot have adequate information for good government and the citizen cannot know what is being done. It is rather remarkable that in many of the towns in America merely a cash system of bookkeeping has been in vogue; that is, cash accounts—cash received and cash paid out—were all the means of determining the transactions of the town. It is essential and fundamental that a city government and the people of the town should understand clearly what constitutes a complete system of municipal accounts. Such a system must cover all financial transactions and data, and these must be collected, classified, and

coördinated around the problems of administration. Thus we have special and departmental ledgers and general ledgers, which will explain in detail receipts and expenditures, and give a clear account of what the income of the city is and what has actually been expended. A budget system provides for the presentation of all the expenses for the coming year, and in addition to that the classification of these expenses according to the functions which the department expending the money is supposed to perform. A budget is made by means of a committee composed of departmental heads, which, working along the lines of a suggested sheet of expenditures, is able to show what the money is to be used for. The town council, which passes upon it later, is able to criticise and modify it, and in the final analysis, having adopted the items of expenditure, to provide plans for raising the money.

The Bureau of the Census of the United States has adopted for its annual reports on the expenditures of municipalities a schedule of classifications that is printed here for the purpose of suggesting to the reader some divisions into which the expenditures of a city may be placed. This helps to demon-

strate that the whole business of government can be greatly facilitated and intelligent criticism of expenditures made that will ultimately result in the preventing of any extravagance.

OUTLINE FOR A TOWN BUDGET

I

GENERAL GOVERNMENT

1. Council and legislative offices
2. Finance offices and accounts
3. Law offices
4. Executive offices
5. Elections
6. Municipal buildings
7. Courts and court officers

II

PROTECTION OF LIFE AND PROPERTY

1. Police department
2. Militia and armories
3. Fire department
4. Miscellaneous inspection
5. Pounds

III

HEALTH CONSERVATION AND SANITATION

1. Health department
2. Quarantine and contagious disease hospital
3. Morgue
4. Sewage and sewage disposal
5. Street cleaning

IV

HIGHWAYS

1. General supervision
2. General street expenditures
3. Street pavements
4. Grading and curbing
5. Bridges and railroad crossings
6. Street sprinkling
7. Street lighting
8. Miscellaneous

V

CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS

1. Relief of the poor
2. Miscellaneous charities
3. Hospital
4. Prison and reformatory; jail

VI

EDUCATION

1. Schools
2. Library
3. Art gallery and museum
4. Lectures and institutes

VII

RECREATION

1. Parks and parkways
2. Public baths
3. Children's playgrounds
4. Celebrations and entertainments
5. Municipal theater

VIII

MISCELLANEOUS

1. Miscellaneous offices
2. Miscellaneous objects

IX

PUBLIC SERVICE ENTERPRISES

1. Waterworks
2. Electric light plant
3. Markets
4. Cemeteries
5. Institutional industries
6. Public halls

X

INTEREST AND PUBLIC DEBT

1. Interest on bonds
2. Interest on other obligations
3. Redemption of bonds
4. Sinking fund

For the creation of the budget the board of estimates might well consist of the mayor, the heads of departments, and a small committee from the council. The council, having power to strike out items and reduce amounts, can work out a basis of expenditure that can be accepted and adhered to by the departments.

The main basis of providing funds for municipal expenditure is found in the levying of a general tax upon the property of citizens residing within the confines of the community. Our general tax in America is a heritage that has come down to us through several centuries. Originally fairly effective in the days

when property was limited to things that could be seen, it has now become a difficult matter, not only of assessing, but of actually collecting the funds that are levied upon the basis of both a personal and a property tax. In some of the Canadian towns the personal property tax has been abandoned and the whole burden of the support of the government placed upon the landed values of the community. Thus practically a single tax has come into existence, and in communities that are progressive, where population is growing and industry developing, this method of raising revenue has been highly successful. But in the United States, where the old methods are still adhered to, a good deal can be done by adopting businesslike and scientific methods of making the assessment. Thus the assessor of the community ought to work out maps that would show the location of every building, the character of the structure, and various other items that could be ascertained at a glance. One way of doing this would be to secure the facts regarding insurance placed upon buildings. Another would be to determine, in accordance with the plan now in vogue in

New York City, the cubic contents of a building; and then, by applying a given rate to it, determine by the age of the building, the character of the structure, and its general condition, its value for taxing purposes. In the valuing of land, what is known as the Somers rule has worked well in New York City. Taking the middle lot in a block and getting its value as nearly as possible, the value of the other lots can be determined by a mathematical rule applicable to every lot in the block. Thus, the corner being more valuable than any of the others, is assessed at a higher value and a sort of mathematical accuracy developed in the determination of the assessment. In smaller towns, where the uniformity of the large city does not exist, there would be some difficulty in working out this rule. Nevertheless, it can be said, as a guide to assessing officers, that units of value can be utilized in determining not only the assessments against land, but against buildings. In this way the haphazard guessing that is the rule in most places will be avoided, with a consequent greater relative justice than is possible where more general personal estimates are made. Fortunate is the city

that has a conscientious, hard-working and studious assessor; and again, fortunate is the town that carries its burden of taxation without complaint, and has little difficulty in its collection.

ORGANIZATIONS AND WHAT THEY CAN
DO FOR THE TOWN

CHAPTER IX

ORGANIZATIONS AND WHAT THEY CAN DO FOR THE TOWN

THE difference between a live town and a dead one is to be traced to the kind of organization existing in it. Under the prevailing conception of municipal government many things are left for the private individual to do, if they are to be done at all. Naturally, in America organizations galore have sprung into existence. These extend from the work of the commercial club to the small boys' league created for the purpose of picking up refuse from the streets. It is therefore the object of this chapter to deal with some of the questions and problems that come before municipal organizations as well as to consider something of the form these activities may take. The Commercial Club, the Women's Civic League, the Associated Charities, the Boy Scouts, the Literary Society, and the Choral Union, furnish enough variety of object and organization to form the main theme of the chapter.

It may be conceded at the outset that without an organization no real results can be secured. The commercial club is supposed to promote publicity. To do this as well as other things it is essential that the organization plan should be well thought out, a paid secretary employed and enthusiastic committees appointed from the club's membership. In towns where miscellaneous committees appointed at the town meeting have been relied upon to care for the municipal interests, little gain has been made from one year to another because of the lack of continuity and careful direction of the enterprises under consideration. Usually business and professional men are willing to coöperate in any movement for the promotion of their town, but such a movement is productive of real results only when the strength, intelligence and good citizenship of a community are united in the organization. If it is proposed that the organization shall be carried on by the giving of bits of time by many men to the work of the office of director, little unity is developed in the plan and the continuation of the work is constantly interrupted. This means that the services of a paid secretary must be secured at the outset. It hardly seems necessary

to say that no paid secretary could do all of the work, but he must be a sort of go-between man, keeping committees up to the performance of their duties, furnishing them with facilities, and acting as a kind of general factotum for the different groups.

The selection of committees for the different types of work to be carried on by the club is not an easy matter. One plan that has been tried successfully is to call upon the members to make suggestions of names for the different committees, designating carefully that these men should be selected on the basis of their energy, enthusiasm, judgment, public spirit, knowledge, coöperative willingness and business success. When the names that have been turned in have been tabulated, the officers are in position to make a selection of names for the committees that successfully carry out work assigned to them. The club being a working organization rather than a social one, it is essential that it shall have funds and unity and hearty support not from a few, but from all. This means a subscription list based upon what the average man can give rather than what the richest man can do. The work of the club is likely to deal with problems of promotion, of securing better rail-

road facilities; the looking after matters of discrimination in rates and prices against the town; the study of town conditions; the maintaining of attractive city parks; caring for streets and roadways; developing publicity, and sometimes of regulating subscriptions for various charitable and amusement proposals.

It is often difficult, however, to get a commercial club to take a united stand on moral questions, or to engage heartily and actively in ridding of public nuisances. When suggestions in this direction are made the business relationships of the members are found to be such that some of them are likely to object on the ground that it will introduce disturbing elements into the club's policy and jeopardize the good feeling among the membership. There is much truth in this view of the matter for the coöperative spirit will continue good so long as it does not interfere with business enterprises. When it does, the club's actions will hardly be sufficiently forceful to get results that are likely to affect the situation.

There is, however, in some progressive towns, an organization that takes up the work of town development where the commercial club leaves it. This organization might be likened to the devoted tenders

of the sacrificial fires in ancient times, for it is engaged in maintaining the flame of enthusiasm and arousing the spirit of real citizenship. Sometimes it is necessary in order to know what is the attitude of the city actually to bring pressure to bear upon citizens to take a high stand on the problems of moral and civic righteousness. The civic league, organized, maintained, and guided by the women of the community, can do a great many things that no commercial club can do. They are in a position to emphasize the cleaning of the town, and being connected usually with no business enterprises, the members are able to bring the matter to the attention of the men of the community without having their motives questioned. Such an organization is invaluable, because it develops continuity of purpose and acts with an authority and power that the individual working alone cannot have in the very nature of things. Sometimes it is essential that the city government shall be shown how a thing can be accomplished. In other words, having refused to take the initiative, it remains for a private organization to carry on the experiment. Thus, in more than one town the playground has been maintained first by the

civic league, and having demonstrated that it is a good thing, it is afterwards taken over by the town government. The same thing is true of kindergartens. In more than one place, the public school authorities having refused to maintain a kindergarten, it remained for a private organization to start it, gather the funds and keep it going until its usefulness could be demonstrated. Indifference to the curfew ordinance, the lax way in which parks are policed, can be offset by the vigilance of a committee of the civic league. A special league of that kind can bring to the community lecturers who will present some of the most recent phases and points of view regarding municipal development which will serve as a good basis for a propaganda to be carried on later. Many instances might be cited where an organization of this kind, having brought such a lecturer into the town, has been able, by fostering the opinion and sentiment so developed, to lay a foundation for a wider public opinion that later expressed itself in favorable action.

In making these statements in regard to the civic league it is not to be understood that the work of the commercial club is of any lesser value; but rather

that the very name itself and the character of the work in which it is most interested of necessity curtail the usefulness of the commercial club in connection with what might be termed the higher phases of town government and growth.

It has been said more than once that the modern town is built for adults and not for children, although the children are compelled to live in them for a longer time than the older people who have established residences there. The consideration of the abilities and power of young people is given small place in town development, and sometimes, the town having failed entirely to recognize them, either in school or elsewhere, the boys in the adolescent period become an actual menace to the public welfare. General Baden-Powell of Boer War fame, a number of years ago conceived the idea that the boys of England ought to be brought into patriotic relationship with their country, and so he inaugurated the Boy Scout movement. This movement now brought to America is as yet in its infancy. The organization hesitates now and then as to the direction in which it is going, but the purpose is a real purpose and one that can be utilized to bring the boys into the

problem of town development. If the boys of the town can be brought together under such a movement, with intelligent leadership, they can do many things for their town in the way of maintaining order, helping to keep the place clean and maintaining a spirit of enjoyment and comradeship that will make for a good town to live in. The young people of our towns need a natural outlet, but up to this time this fact has scarcely been recognized except by certain commercial agencies that have undertaken to coin money by taking advantage of the love of adventure and the need of outside stimulus through the development of questionable resorts in which they may spend their time. The organization of the Boy Scout movement must come from the outside, from the older people. It should be fostered by the schools and churches of the community, and every effort should be made to utilize the boys in helping to build a better town; first, by getting them into the right attitude, and, second, by using their energy whenever practicable, as in the instance of fairs, carnivals or festival days. The German people have long recognized that it is essential that boys should be given a physical education and military training.

After he is fourteen, for three years the German boy is required to attend a continuation school, if he does not go to a gymnasium or secondary school, and after that to enter the army for a period of from one to three years. In this country, however, we have no such system of required education after the eighth grade, and many boys not interested in the work of the earlier period, drop out of school to drift from job to job and adventure to adventure, until work is irksome and further education is thought impossible. Then the boy becomes a menace, which the Boy Scout organization tends to check by utilizing him before he has lost interest and hope. The men of a town can do much to help. The school and church must do more in order that the boy may be a real factor in town development.

The commercial club counts its success in the increase of population, the enlargement of business, and the growth of bank clearings. The women's civic league enumerates its conquests by calling attention to what has been done in the establishment of playgrounds, the enlargement of the schools, and the giving of valuable lectures. But, after all, a town is to be counted successful only when its young men

and young women are entering into useful occupations and taking their places as efficient and law-abiding citizens. So the Boy Scout movement meets two needs: First, in giving the boys an opportunity to utilize their time and energy to best advantage, and, second, in giving the town the advantage of the young force and ability which has hitherto been neglected.

Besides the organizations that have been mentioned the town should have a choral society, consisting of members from every class of the population. We have not learned how to sing in America. We do not yet appreciate the enjoyment to be found in group singing. A choral society, intelligently led, can do a great deal for the betterment of a town, and what is more, a society of that kind, giving a concert once a year, acts as a publicity factor that is very effective in bringing people from the neighboring communities to the town. The same is true of a live dramatic society whose offerings from time to time add much to the enjoyment of the town. One of the difficulties confronting such an organization is how to secure a coach capable of directing the play. It is worth observing that plans are now under way

in several of the state universities to send dramatic coaches to communities so that they can have the advantage of intelligent direction that will result in good training and in the presentation of first-class plays. This element of publicity, looked at from the business point of view, can be very effectively utilized.

One other organization should be mentioned in this connection, and that is an organization based upon the old type of literary society. There is to be found in every town some desire for intellectual expression other than that which is furnished by the public prints and in ordinary conversation.

The creation of a fortnightly club, meeting through some nine or ten months of the year, gives a means for such expression, and it also acts as a forum in which matters of public interest can be considered and tried out, as it were, before they are brought to the attention of the larger group of the town. The value of such a club can only be appreciated by those who have seen one actually at work and the results of the discussions that have taken place in them. Many a problem fails of successful solution because of inadequate conception of the

principles upon which it is based, and the fortnightly club of the community might serve as a safety-valve, not only for the opening up of some important matters of a national and civic character, but also for providing a means for arousing public opinion regarding actual needs of the town.

Under the conditions existing in old-fashioned communities, it has been the custom to turn over the problem of charity to individuals, churches and societies, without very much question as to what was being done or how it was being done. Now and then some flagrant case of duplication of effort has come to the attention of a few of the observing, but this ripple on the surface was soon dispelled and the town fell back into its old way of doing things. Little by little the communities are learning that charity is a part of the municipal problem that cannot be delegated to individuals, and what is more, that there must be some care, coördination and continuity of treatment of the poor if we are to get anything like a satisfactory result from our charitable impulses. It has been assumed that charity organization societies were for large cities, but that such organization was unnecessary in the smaller towns because it was

taken for granted that every one knew what was being done. But in towns of over 5,000 inhabitants there is no question but that an organization along the lines of the charity organization society, with a permanent secretary, who may or may not be paid, would materially help toward a better understanding of the problems arising from the social and economic conditions existing in the community. An organization consisting of ten or fifteen directors, selected by a larger group, could, by the employment of a visiting nurse, or of a person skilled in charitable work, bring about amazing results for the good of the community, and, further, make an actual saving of money. That, however, is not the purpose. The real object is to stop wastefulness of effort and to place those who have found difficulty in adjusting themselves to conditions in the way of actually securing a healthful home atmosphere. An associated charities, then, with a visiting nurse, who can go about wherever her help is needed, should be established in every town of any size, for the reason that there exists in every such community problems that can only be met by systematic effort. The commercial club assumes that it needs a paid secretary,

the civic league insists upon continuity of effort, and certainly the work of charity should be undertaken in a continuous and helpful way.

Whichever way one turns in the consideration of these problems which have brought into existence these numerous organizations to deal with them, he is confronted by the need of more education. Everywhere it is clearly seen that the first condition for the solution of the problem is intelligence. While it is true that education cannot produce intelligence as such, it can materially widen the horizon of the view of individuals, so that they can deal with the problem in a big, generous way. Consequently, a school board must bear the brunt, after all, of maintaining most of the things that are needed in the town. A commercial club can take care of publicity; the civic league can deal with some of the problems of street cleaning, though that is distinctly a municipal function, but the utilization of the school plant and the recognition of the fact that we are doing little enough in America to bring about right results in our towns, the keeping of the boys and girls alive to their own interests, must rest upon the school system. The watchword of the future will be,

“Utilize the school plant!” “Utilize the time of the pupil!” And this can be brought about by the coöperation of school officers, instructors, the citizens, and the town organizations.

If this chapter has any real purpose, it is to point out that some organizations can take care of some of the problems; that the very existence of an organization is evidence of some sort of a problem; that these problems affect the growth of the community; that the attitude of indifference will leave us just where we were; that the attitude of criticism is destructive, and that by the bringing together of the coöperative forces of the community the people of the town may be made a great deal happier, a great deal better, and a great deal wiser. When the minister, the teacher, the business man, and the professional man work together through organization, through town government, and through the school board we shall have all the forces which the community has at its command actually engaged in the betterment of the town.

This is not a dream; it is not an impossibility; it is really the natural thing, and ought to be done. The time has come when we ought to give over the

idea that there is nothing to do because we live in a town, and to accept the view that there is much to do, because we have come in contact with a co-operative society in which the lives of all are affected by the views, the standards, and the acts of all.

ADVERTISING THE TOWN

CHAPTER X

ADVERTISING THE TOWN

IN these days of periodicals, newspapers, and illuminated signs, it has come to be regarded as essential that all classes of business, different types of enterprises, and various sorts of endeavor must present their merit to the public in order to succeed. This statement holds good not only of private undertakings, but even municipalities are forced to present their wares in the public prints. While it is true that the town governments seldom expend the money raised by taxation for advertising purposes, nevertheless private bodies of a semi-public character are engaged continually in presenting the merits, wholly or in part, of their different communities. Like the price of liberty, publicity must be maintained at the cost of eternal vigilance; and, once begun, it is essential that it shall be continued, not for a short period of a few days or weeks, but for several years, in order to secure any real benefit. Viewed in this

way, the question of advertising cannot be dismissed as of no importance in the consideration of town problems.

What is the purpose in advertising a community? Presumably the first object is to bring together a larger population to live within the confines of the town; the second purpose is to sell more of the goods and products that are manufactured in the community; and the third is to induce visitors to come from abroad in order that they may spend their time and their money in the place.

What brings such a population to a town is the first question that comes to the front in an attempt to analyze the purpose of advertising. There appear to be two answers: First, that the town shall be a satisfactory place in which to live; and, second, that as a prosperous community in which a living can be secured under fairly easy conditions there will be inducements for people to invest their time and money. Good water, proper sewerage arrangements, and conditions which make for health are the first requirement for a satisfactory living place; the second consists of adequate educational facilities in the way of schools, libraries, museums, and art gal-

leries; and the third an environment where a high regard for morals prevails and child life is safe from contaminating influences. When these fundamentals are provided in a community that is by nature attractive the first condition for securing a population has been met.

Upon the second point, namely, a place where it is comparatively easy to secure a living, the answer is by no means so manifest. In this instance a satisfactory market for products, the presence of the essentials for manufacturing in the way of power, fuel, material, and labor, all make, with a fairly well-inhabited territory roundabout the community, the basis for an economic organization that has possibilities of expansion. To bring visitors to the community who will spend their dollars during their stay necessitates attractions, which may in part be provided by nature, or developed by the community in the form of theaters, exhibitions, fairs, carnivals, and such other amusement as might from time to time be brought to the town. If, then, there is a real basis for the development of the community, the question of advertising becomes the necessary one of letting the world know what the town has.

This, however, brings the reader to the material that has been secured through the agency of the social survey referred to in the opening chapter of the book. Without knowledge of conditions inaccurate statements may be made and persons misled to the utter ruin of the town's reputation for honesty and fair dealing. More than that, real publicity must rest upon a wide knowledge of the facts, for argument cannot be based upon hypothetical statements.

If it is agreed by the leaders of the community that an advertising campaign shall be carried on, some four questions must be answered, if the experiment is to result in success: First, to whom should the argument about the town be directed; second, what arguments are most appealing and effective to the constituency that will be interested; third, what methods are the wisest for carrying out the purposes of the campaign; and, fourth, in what form and under what conditions should publications be used? The reckless sending of information to all parts of the country, through the medium of lists of persons purchased without inspection of the names and addresses, will result in disappointment. One

method of securing a proper clientele has been that of using corner coupons in cases where magazine advertising has been resorted to. In this way the persons interested make themselves known to the committee in charge of the campaign, and when followed up by the sending of special literature a considerable percentage of bona fide inquiries have resulted. During the last ten years some of the larger cities have resorted to magazine space for the presentation of their opportunities, and in some instances the results have been effective, though manufacturers are reluctant to give publicity to any proposed change of location since it is likely to disturb their credit and banking connections.* The smaller towns are reduced for their publicity to the occasional presentation of articles in the local newspapers and periodicals. These articles should deal with the advantages of the community and its value as a living and business place. A few communities print monthly magazines of their own, paying for them from the funds of the town, and, while advertisement was not the original intent, nevertheless the uniqueness of the plan has brought a great deal of

* "How to Remedy Defects of City Advertising," *Printers Ink*, January, 1913.

publicity. Moreover, such a publication would likely increase the interest of citizens in the business and government of the town. The utilization of local newspapers for advertising the town from the promotion point of view proves usually expensive and unsatisfactory, but as a means of circulating news regarding the place much can be done through the daily press to secure advantageous publicity. The newspapers, however, will not take the material that is commonly referred to as gratuitous publicity. The copy prepared must contain news interest, and such material, if it is to be sent out regularly, requires the employment of a person willing to give his time to it. Thus, in some of the small cities of the West, towns of fifteen or twenty thousand inhabitants, skilled newspaper men have been employed to conduct news bureaus. The advantage of such a plan is found in the fact that all the different towns of the region to which the news service is sent print the name of the town from which the news emanates, and as a consequence call attention to what is going on at that point. One difficulty with this plan, however, is that, unless handled tactfully, the papers of

rival communities refuse to print the news on the ground that it is advertising pure and simple.

Besides these forms of printed advertising, there is also the possible utilization of illustrated pamphlets dealing with specific phases of a town's development. Such, for instance, as the residence side of a town, the business side, the educational advantages; in fact, the town as a place to live. But it is to be said in regard to such pamphlets that, unless well organized, and still further well printed, with good illustrations, they have little or no effect. The warning should be made doubly emphatic in this connection that a poorly printed booklet is likely to do more harm than good as a means of publicity.

Certain individual forms of advertising, individual because the appeal and the method of circulation is through the medium of persons, have been used in many towns from time to time. The commonest of these is the wearing of a button bearing the town motto or some slogan concerning the town. These buttons are usually presented on the occasion of the meeting of a convention and add a certain element of spice and interest for a day or two that is probably

worth all that they cost. Yet they are merely openers of the question, and since they give no information must be followed up, if the curiosity excited is to be utilized, through information of more extended character. Sometimes signs are placed along the highways, by which the traveler is told of the advantages of the community. While this method of advertising has its advantages, nevertheless its possibilities are limited, for a sign soon grows old and lacks the interest which the printed forms of advertising possess.

Many towns maintain a public band, largely to assist in entertaining the community and to add to the jollification on special days that are celebrated. Such a band, if well trained, has a local influence in the matter of advertising that impresses visitors and others who hear it in different places with the enterprise of the community.

In most places where a town has entered upon a systematic attempt to carry on a plan of publicity, conventions and gatherings of all kinds are invited to meet there. Inducements in the way of halls, payment of certain local expenses, which may vary from that of printing and postage up to the assump-

tion of the entire cost, have been extended with the understanding that a convention will bring people to the town who will spend a considerable sum of money there. Such advertising is really of a selfish nature, as the money that is brought in is spent in narrow channels, among hotel-keepers and retail merchants. It is expected that the theaters, amusement places, and notion dealers will gain during the time the visitors are in the town.

But this is by no means the sole argument for a convention policy. It is estimated that 18,000 conventions were held in the United States in a single year. To these meetings men from all walks of life came, giving the cities in which the conventions assembled an opportunity to impress their important advantages upon the visitors. Ten years ago, so the story goes, three brothers from Iowa attended a convention in Detroit. Impressed with that city, they visited it again and finally removed their plant. These were the Packards and the pioneers in the automobile business at Detroit. On a smaller scale, and as a matter of course less frequently, the town has the opportunity to impress the manufacturer, who is seeking a modest opening for his plant, with

its advantages for a successful business. The principle whether the place is large or small is the same, though the details of policy may differ. On this point, a committee of one of the city organizations reported that the following convention policy should be adopted as a basis for convention negotiations: (1) Invite conventions for which local bodies are willing to take charge of the entertainment; (2) pay no money as a bonus for any convention; (3) free halls and exhibit rooms may be offered to certain conventions; (4) promise no funds for entertainment of any convention; and (5) pay no expense money to local delegates attending conventions in other cities. The small town cannot hold to all of these points and get conventions. In the first place, there are but few local bodies that can take charge of entertainment; free halls, in the second place, must be provided, and in order to be represented at times the fifth point must be given over, but on the second and third points no question can be raised as to their real soundness.

Fairs and carnivals may be helpful in town publicity, or they may be actually deterrent to the reputation of the town; it depends upon the attitude. A

fair or carnival that has an educational purpose connected with it, and where the object is to carry conviction of a definite kind to the visitors, may result in much good; but if the carnival is given by some traveling concern, which goes about from place to place, with no care whatever for the reputation of the community, and only intent upon taking away as much money as possible, the town may win a reputation for reckless morals, and at the same time impress the visitors with a lack of ideals and purpose. On the other hand, a carnival can be made a thing of entertainment and of education. Something of the history of the town might be presented in tableau form, while the business interests would have an opportunity of presenting their different claims to the attention of the public in booths and tents, assisted by discussions of interest to the people of the region, together with entertainment in the form of games in which all might indulge. Such an event might be made a sort of home-coming, which would result in far greater advantage to the town than could be secured through the utilization of professional companies. Here and there towns have won lasting fame by such a program. Thus water-

melon day at Rocky Ford is known far and wide, and corn-roast day at Loveland has come in for much comment. In short, a town that can develop an annual festival, or a home-coming week, or a celebration of some such type, and will prepare for the event, basing it on principles that will give the right impression, will be engaged in really efficient promotion.

Occasionally excursions by citizens in autos into adjoining territory, well advertised in advance, awakens the surrounding territory to a realization of what the town is, what it is doing, and what it has to offer. Such an excursion must, however, be well planned, so as to have clearly in mind the definite aim of bringing attention to specific things, if it is to work out as a publicity measure. If a town is engaged in manufacturing, an excursion of this character might be undertaken by train, and the representatives of the community descending upon the villages roundabout bring to them a realization of the importance of their neighbor that could not be secured by the occasional visits of individuals, though they carried banners and buttons announcing the advantages of the town.

All of these suggestions are in the main either amusement in character or the advancement of the interests of specific groups of persons. Once in a while a town might hold a sort of analytical meeting, in which the relations between town and country would be considered. The best ways of beautifying the town; how to enlarge the functions of the schools for the welfare of the community; the problems of sanitation and hygiene, and other problems of a purely municipal character would come in for consideration. Well qualified speakers are to be found in the state and at the university, and these can be drafted to give advice and helpful suggestions to any town looking for such help. To make a program of that kind really valuable a survey should be made in advance, so the speakers may fit their discussions into the needs of the town. In the case of the program on page 190, that was done with a much better result than could be secured by inflicting upon the community a general program prepared with other ends in view. This program was given under the title of "Citizens' Institute and by the coöperation of the University of the State and the Commercial Club of the Town."

CITIZENS' INSTITUTE

Under the Direction of the Lisbon Commercial Club and the
Extension Department of the State University

TWO DAYS — WEDNESDAY AND THURSDAY

*Illustrated Lectures on Public Health. Lectures and Discussions
on City Improvement, School Questions, Medical Inspection,
Public Amusements and Other Topics. Free
Educational Moving Pictures Twice
Each Day at the Scenic*

PROGRAM

WEDNESDAY, JANUARY TWENTY-NINTH

1:30 P. M. Scenic Theater.—Educational Moving Pictures. Introduced by brief talk on the good and bad in moving pictures.

2:30 P. M. Opera House.—Is the Health of School Children a Matter of Public Concern?—Doctor Gustave F. Ruediger, Director of State Public Health Laboratories.

2:45 P. M. The Woman's Side of Farm Life—Miss Minnie J. Nielson, County Superintendent of Barnes County and President of State Federation of Women's Clubs.

3:15 P. M. General Discussion of questions of health and sanitation with Doctor Ruediger in charge and Superintendent Simcox of city schools leading.

4:00 P. M. High School Assembly Room 1—Practical work for the club women of Lisbon—Miss Nielson.

2—Health and Hygiene of Sex—Miss Bertha Erdman—Director of Course for Nurses, University of North Dakota. 3—General Discussion.

4:00 P. M. Opera House.—Men's Meeting. 1—Plain Facts that We Ought to Know—Doctor Ruediger.

5:00 P. M. Scenic Theater.—Educational Moving Pictures.

8:00 P. M. Opera House.—The City as a Home for Its People—Professor John M. Gillette, Professor of Sociology, University of North Dakota.

8:45 P. M. The Social Center Idea and Social Centers for Small Cities—N. C. Abbott, Field Organizer of Extension Work, University of North Dakota.

9:15 P. M. General Discussion on School Questions and Public Amusements with Professor Gillette in charge and Miss Nielson leading.

THURSDAY, JANUARY THIRTIETH

Forenoon conferences with Professor Gillette, Doctor Ruediger, Miss Nielson and Miss Erdman.

1:30 P. M. Scenic Theater.—Educational Moving Pictures.

2:00 P. M. Opera House.—The Town for the Country and the Country for the Town—Professor Gillette.

1:45 P. M.—The City's Interest in Public Health—Doctor Ruediger.

3:30 P. M. Lessons in Civic Improvement from the Small Cities in Germany—President Frank L. McVey, University of North Dakota.

5:00 P. M. Scenic Theater.—Children's Meeting. Educational Moving Pictures.

8:00 P. M. Opera House.—What a Town Government, Organizations and Clubs Can Do for a Community—President McVey.

*All General Sessions at the Opera House No Admission Charged
Come Prepared to Ask Questions*

After all, effective advertising in the long run must be based upon the solidity of the community, the honesty of its citizens, the character, and reputation, and business that it carries on, the cleanliness of the hotel, the uprightness of the community standards, the attractiveness of the entertainment offered, as well as the general appearance of the town. These are the things that really advertise, and all that publicity can do is to bring these to the attention of persons who would be interested naturally in seeking such a place as a residence or as a business center. Such publicity as can be brought about in the various ways mentioned above is desirable in so far as it is well done, and the results will be worth the while only so far as intelligence is used and the publicity started is continued over a period of time.

THE FUTURE OF THE TOWN

CHAPTER XI

THE FUTURE OF THE TOWN

LOOKING at the town from an historical viewpoint, we find that it is a consequence of the separation of trade and manufactures from agriculture; or, to put it in other words, a product of the division of labor. In ancient times the self-sufficing groups attempted to meet their own needs, not only in the products of the soil, but in the making of clothing, furniture, harnesses, weapons, and tools. Only now and then did the overlords on the manors in Europe call upon commerce to bring them the luxuries of the Indies, for the soil-bound population supplied nearly everything. As time went on individuals reached high skill in specific lines of work, and, instead of dividing their energies between agriculture and a craft, they came as a matter of course to give all of their efforts to the latter. The demand for goods increasing with the growth of population, the artisans made their way to various places of con-

venience and gathered around them other individuals who were more or less directly associated with the work that they were doing. In Europe the older towns had their origin in numerous instances in the meetings at some shrine or burial-place, and, as the feudal system developed into a military force, the population came to be grouped in the neighborhood of the castles and forts belonging to the feudal lords, partly for protection, partly for convenience of barter and trade.

In America town beginnings had no such picturesque origin. Everywhere the primitive agricultural community was in evidence. The members first grouped together for safety, and later on scattered as a matter of convenience to the different pieces of land they were cultivating. It was essential that artisans and tradesmen should appear. These located at points of vantage on the traveled roads, at the fording place of a stream, or at some break in transportation. Numerous examples of this statement are to be found in all parts of the country: (1) The city of St. Paul, now grown to a considerable population, is the head of navigation on the Mississippi, and marked during the thirty years

from 1850 the break in the movement of freight and the transfer of goods from steamboat to the Red River carts. New York, Duluth, and Buffalo, as well as other cities in America, are now located at points where in the earlier days it was necessary to change the form of transportation. Thus, at New York, the ocean steamer brought to the land the goods that were to be carried by train beyond, the train brought to the ocean steamer the commodities that were to be transported to foreign shores, and from this break at the water's edge there resulted the development of a great population that came ultimately to be engaged in commercial pursuits, in banking, finance, and manufacturing. (2) As the population of the United States has expanded, other reasons have come to have special force in establishing towns. The presence of natural resources, such as coal, gas, and waterpower for manufacturing, has resulted in the location of the city or town in the neighborhood of the resources. Pittsburg is probably the best example of this statement. (3) Here and there is to be found on our streams falling water, which has been utilized for power. Minneapolis is an example of such a city, having had its

origin in the waterpower at St. Anthony Falls. (4) Again, freight rates and railway policies have determined the location of towns and affected their growth. The regional basis of freight rates at one time placed the whole State of Texas in a position where all towns were practically on the same footing so far as long distance rates were concerned. Again, for many years the growth of cities in Iowa was checked materially by the through rates that were granted to Omaha and not to them. This attitude of the railways discriminated against the Iowa towns and gave a marked advantage to the terminal freight point. (5) Besides these economic reasons, there are certain strategic ones, of both a military and political character. Thus towns were located because it was desired to protect a pass by a fort or to control a body of water through the strategic placing of a military force. Some cities, however, have been created by political fiat, as in the case of Washington, Ottawa, Berlin, and St. Petersburg, all of which had their origin in the establishment of a town as a capital, and their position and place commercially were determined largely by a political act

of the government.* (6) The greater number of towns in America, especially in the West, are, however, nothing but located towns. The railroads having built their lines through undeveloped country, it was part of their function to locate and establish stations where freight and passengers might come for distribution throughout the surrounding territory. In most instances the process of location has been carried out in a perfunctory sort of way, without much reference to natural position or beauty of location. An engineer in his office at the terminal station might have located the majority of the towns as successfully as it has been done with nothing more than a pair of dividers scaled for a given distance on the map. Later on syndicates were formed which took over the townsites from the railroad companies, and now in these later years, under the magic of immigration managers, buildings appear before the coming of the settlers' trains, and banks, general stores, lumber yards, and elevators are established to meet the economic needs, fancied or real, of the prospective dwellers in the village.

* Berlin is an evident exception to this statement, but her present prosperity and growth are due in a large measure to the development of canals.

It is this type of town that is confronted by very difficult problems in development, since beauty of location and often the larger economic considerations have been overlooked in the placing of the village. There are scores of such towns in every state and territory. The economies of wagon transportation create a circle beyond which it is impracticable to carry grain or go for supplies. As a consequence, these towns come to be known as "supply towns," "elevator towns," "grain towns," "cow towns," in accordance with the character of the business to be done in a given territory. Producing commodities necessitates sales. Hence, mercantile and financial agencies, as seen in the elevator and the bank, come as a matter of course, and since supplies must be had for the cultivator of the soil, the general store soon lays its foundation and covers its shelves with goods for the purchaser. Other wants, such as repairs of machinery, ironwork in sharpening tools, and woodwork, must be met, and if a profit is apparent, even in the imagination of the most sanguine, the manufacturing, merchandising, and financing agencies of adjoining territory are called upon to add another link to their organization.

From everywhere, from veritably the four corners of the earth, come the population required to make up the dwellers of a new village. The storekeeper may be a retired farmer, weary of outdoor life, and now looking for an easier way of adding to his hoard, or he may be some young fellow enthused with the fame of great merchants, who, stocked by a wholesale house, has gathered a hundred dollars or so to start his venture in the new community. The banker is already on the ground ere the first train arrives, having traveled overland from the rival road some forty miles away. He is in all likelihood the representative of some banking company that has added a new bank to its string, and the elevators, pushing their ugly forms skyward, bear the insignia of companies managed and owned in one of the large cities. The professional men of the town are likely to be new men just from the schools, anxious to try their acquirements upon client or patient, or they may be older men seeking new openings, where competition is less severe or surroundings pleasanter. The schoolmaster and his assistants are the forerunners of a long procession of ever-changing instructors of youth. From many

schools and colleges they come, now and then vitally interested in the community, and in some instances enthusiastically trying to leave some learning in the minds of the pupils. Besides all these are the livery man, the hotel man, the section foreman, the station agent, the odd job man, and many others who make up the roster of the village. From many parts of the land, of many nationalities, varying education, training, experience, and point of view, they come to live together in close association, meeting day by day, with the ultimate object of building a town.

Strongly contrasted with these new beginnings of community life are the older towns and villages, started before the days of railroads. These have had their heyday and are now settled down to a humdrum existence, forgetting progress, and reluctantly putting forth any community effort to better conditions of living. The slow falling of the value of property creates problems of revenue that overshadow all questions of betterment, and the hardening of social lines has brought about a cleavage in the status of the population that divides the town into social groups that get on with tolerance of

each other, but throttle the town's progress because of the lack of a common purpose.

There is another group, consisting of towns and villages, that have found an increasingly larger place in the economic organization, and now look forward to changes in sewers, water, light, paving, and enlarged expenditure upon community social enterprises. The population in such places is actuated by the common impulse to succeed and a real interest in the progress of the region roundabout. The larger meaning of community wants and needs is accepted, and the philosophy of the new advertising, that wants can be created by opening the imagination to the uses of products, forms the basic principle of the business expansion. Consequently, merchants no longer look upon a patron gained as a patron lost for their competitor, but understand that each may perform his work better in the community by the specialization of effort. So the division of labor goes on, and even the inevitable social cleavage is offset by the greater opportunities for amusement and contact with the citizens of the place in the growth of the town.

The observer of community life has noticed that

it is a far cry from the scattered hamlet to the compact and dominating city. Midway in the process of metropolis building is the town, defined as larger than a village, but not a city. Various economic impulses, through the medium of railroad, local industries, the securing of political advantages, and the growth of population have made the hamlet a town and aroused local spirit, while opening a roseate view of future prospects to the imagination of the citizen. It is then that cow paths are surrendered for walks and traffic in vehicles goes on the roadway between curbs. Voluntary efforts for protection of life and property are no longer considered sufficient, and the local squire comes to be regarded as an inadequate representative of the law. So a city charter is secured from the state. In it specific powers are granted to the community, offices are added to the original list, and the functions of government are materially enlarged. Originally but a distributing center, where farmers came to exchange their products for the necessities of life, the town takes on industrial, and even commercial, functions. The blacksmith shop disappears to reappear in the course of time as a wagonworks, the cobbler is dis-

guised as a shoe manufactory, and the little grocery on the corner in a few years begins a new career as a wholesale house. Then it is that a local market is created and banks come to act as the medium through which business is transacted. The place, in fact, reaches the point of showing a consciousness of its own integrity.

Quite as remarkable as these outward changes in the town are the more subtle ones to be found by the keen observer of population and complexity of life. Originally the people of the hamlet were much alike in ambitions, possessions, and education, but the growth of the hamlet into the town has brought marked differences in conditions, and social groups come to be distinguished as entities separate from the general mass of people. The possession of property marks one group, professional training another; politics and church affiliations create cross groupings, until there is a complexity of social and economic conditions that stand out in strong contrast to the simple hamlet days. With these changes a far more difficult problem arises in the building of the town and making it what it ought to be—a good place for men, women, and children to live in.

As a matter of fact, the town offers an immense economic agency to stamp a new civilization upon the people who pass through its portals. In the long run the town will prove itself an advance toward higher and better forms of social existence. It is not by decrying the town that progress is to be made, but by raising the town to a realization of its place as a maker of standards, the creator and experimenter with new things, and then in turn giving to the country the best the town has in improvements and opportunities. Both go forward together, not one as against the other.

“The drift of country population to the towns and cities, with their many amusements, indulgence in vices, and higher wages, is sapping the strength, not only of the English, but of every white race.” “This flocking to the towns means the ultimate destruction of the white races if it continues unchecked.” The two statements just quoted are indicative of the general attitude toward towns and the feeling of apprehension that is everywhere shared by men of some reputation as thinkers. The mighty flow of country population into the cities is looked

upon as an entirely modern phenomenon. Yet, going back into the history of Europe, there are to be found two periods during which the same phenomenon took place—one during the heyday of the Roman Empire, and the other in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Professor Bücher, upon whose authority the above statements are made, in his *Industrial Evolution*, fittingly says: "Every transitional epoch has its inconveniences and its sufferings; but the modern movement of population, in so far as it is expressed in the influx into the cities, will, like that of mediæval times, reach its goal and then subside. This goal can be none other than to assign to every individual capacity and to every local group of persons that place and rôle in the great national life in which its endowments and the altered technical conditions of economic activity best fit it to contribute to the general welfare."

Viewed largely, the statement of the last paragraph sets a great program before the municipalities of the world. Nearly four-fifths of the people of Great Britain live in towns, while one-half of the population of the United States dwell

within town boundaries. In feudal times towns meant protection from the ravages of marauders; today they mean congested population made up of landless men, without resources behind them to fall back upon, who eagerly seek opportunity and a market for their services. The consequent variations in conditions of life and livelihood in the town create a series of problems that are beyond the power of any one individual to solve, and raise ever-present questions regarding health, education, protection, and recreation of the inhabitants. How to make the town a benefactor has come to be a matter of concern to municipal officers, while the municipal spirit seeks to widen the opportunities for real living. We have thus seen fit to designate the place where organized attempts are made to apply scientific and economic principles to the housing of people, their education and comfort, and where standards of living are high, as a Model Town. The phrase means little or much, depending upon how it is applied, but it represents in a word the move toward better things in municipal life. Betterment in these matters cannot result except by intelligent community action. So town building today means community

coöperation as never before and the study of the problem from the point of view of the future.

The future town, when it has come to realize all of its possible activities, will be, in addition to the agency of government and director of utilities, a patron of the arts. In times gone by kings and princes gave bonuses to gifted men and women in order to help them in their work as artists. But in a country where there is no privileged class the towns and cities will become the patrons of the fine arts. Mural pictures will appear in the great civic buildings, fountains will adorn court yards, and statues will be found in every park. The people of the town will know art and appreciate it, because it will be a part of their life; and the town will be the patron, because it will have larger funds at its command than any individual. With a wider appreciation of what art is and what it can add to life, it will come to be looked upon as an essential thing and not one remote from the daily life of the people.

Without question democracy is being tested in unusual ways today, and nowhere more than in the city and town. The problems of government press for solution everywhere, and the possibility of deal-

ing with these problems in comparatively small areas is greater in city and town than anywhere else. If the town cannot manage its business better than the state or nation, it certainly is no argument for the larger control of business and industry by a democracy scattered over a broader area. If the town cannot build and cannot carry on an enterprise with efficiency, it certainly cannot be argued that the larger democracy can do the bigger things.

While this statement is true, it must be acknowledged that the pressure upon democracy from forces opposed to government by the people is likewise greater in a city than elsewhere. Hence today the problem of good government is not one which interests only the people of the town, but it interests the people of the nation as a whole. The working out of an efficient government by democracy in the town will be taken as a hopeful sign by the people the country over. Consequently, the man who looks upon government in town and village as a matter of indifference, and of no special interest to him, is really taking the attitude that government the country over is hardly worth the while. The call for the intelligent patriotism and sacrifice of men in city,

town, and village is great indeed, and if there can be created in these places a real government, forceful, efficient, and wise, it may be assumed that the problem of national government will be solved.

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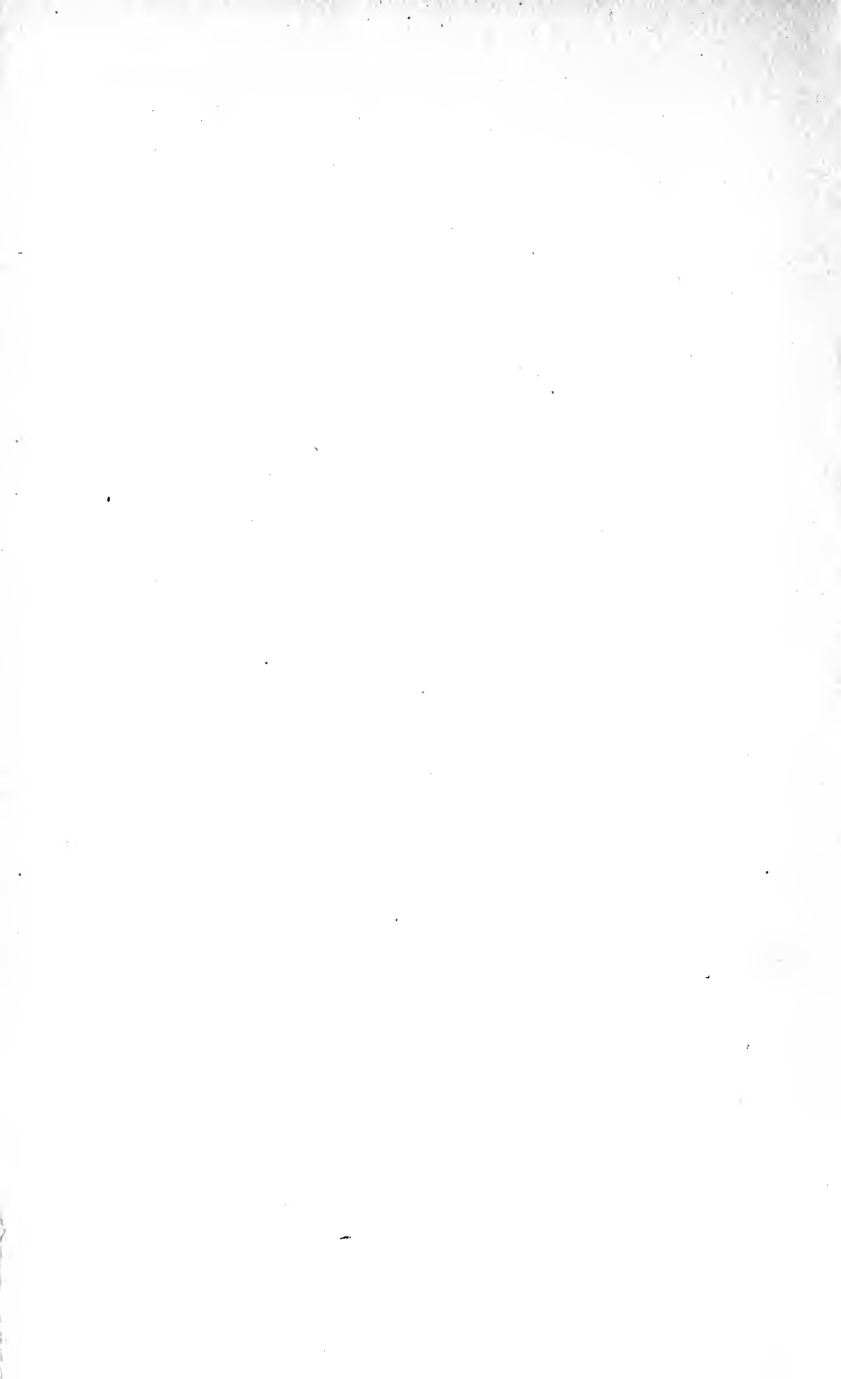
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